RURAL SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

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A MODERN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL

RURAL SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

BY

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PREFACE

This book has been written by men who know at first hand the whole problem they are trying to describe, interpret, and solve. It contains material that is practical. Its object is to deal with some of the great problems, leaving other equally important problems to be investigated and solved by the teacher in the schoolroom. It is not a manual which promises to suggest the way out of every difficulty, but it does aim to inspire the student of rural sociology to appreciate the importance of a community school as a center for implanting American standards and ideals.

The authors have been diligent students of rural life and rural prospects, and they believe most wholeheartedly that the rural school should be adapted to the homes and the interests of the pupils who go to school to receive an education sufficient and complete for perfect living in America.

This book will be of equal value to the people of the community and to the teacher. It does not lose sight of the fact that every person in a community has a valuable part as a contributor to human welfare, and this co-operation and sympathy become the means to positive and desirable ends.

The reading of this book is convincing evidence that America needs to emphasize even more than in the

past the education of every child, the children of the farm equally with the children of the city, and, furthermore, that this task may become one of inspiration and enrichment if it is pursued in the proper spirit and with intelligence and devotion.

HOMER H. SEERLEY.

INTRODUCTION

These authors, who have had unusual success not only in managing their own rural schools but also in the supervision of rural schools, have together written a book which should find much favor among persons who are interested in the country school. The authors have selected the most important problems of management which the rural teacher must constantly meet; they have presented these problems in a practical manner, so that this book will be a helpful and inspiring guide to the teacher occupied with the difficult task of managing a country school.

The teacher in the one-teacher rural school meets problems that are peculiar to the conditions existing in the country neighborhood, often more involved and difficult than fall to the lot of teachers in larger and more specialized schools. This book groups these problems logically and treats them simply and fully.

In the first group a sympathetic analysis is given to the problems. The initial step is to understand the difficult problems of rural life and to have an appreciation of the worth of the people of the farm communities.

The second group of problems deals with the usual forms of organization and administration of rural school districts and their affairs. In this connection the relation of the country teacher to her superior officers and

the use of records and reports are clearly set forth. Successful management of this phase of the work is the second logical step toward success.

The third group of problems deals with the schoolhouse and its equipment. Here carelessness and indifference on the part of the rural community are often evident. However, these frequently arise from a lack of information on the part of the people themselves. The teacher who is prepared to point out the improvements which should be made and to lead in organizing the community to secure them will usually meet with a hearty response. This is another important step toward success in teaching a country school.

The last group of problems deals with the most important factor, the teacher herself. A county superintendent in a Western State said to the writer: "If I were to take you to the best rural school in my county, I would take you to a sod schoolhouse in a backward community. The best school in the county is there because the best teacher in the county is there."

In connection with the work of the teacher, careful treatment has been given to that most difficult task of organizing a satisfactory daily and yearly program under the conditions where one teacher is required to teach all the classes in all the subjects in the eight elementary grades. The recommendations given here are the result of careful tests carried out in rural school laboratories.

The subjects in this last group show the modern trend in education. Physical education, the warm lunch,

health education, citizenship, industrial work, types of teaching, and measuring the results of teaching are here presented as well as the discipline and the personal growth of the teacher.

The reading of this book will give the teacher a new value of her relation to her community and will show her in a practical way how she can be of the greatest service.

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RURAL SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

RURAL SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

CHAPTER I

THE RURAL TEACHER AND THE COMMUNITY

The teacher is a part of the community in which she works. She takes her place with the mother in the home and the pastor in the church as a moulder of character. When doing her work completely she wields an influence that affects not only the individual child, but also future society. The teacher's leadership in any community is an important factor in its progress, but in order that the teacher in a rural or small-town school may attain a real leadership she must possess the following characteristics: (1) Have an appreciation for the beauty of the country. (2) Have an appreciation for country people and their problems. (3) Understand the progress made in rural life. (4) Realize the advantages in working with country children. (5) Be in love with her job.

An Appreciation for the Beauty of the Country.—One who lives in the open country resides in the midst of Nature's crowning effort. So much of the best in the world seems to have come from the fields, gardens, and hillsides. Truths spoken by the Master Poet come to us exhaling the odors of the open country. His stories are often of sowers, husbandmen, herdsmen; His similes and illustrations so often deal with the common and familiar beauty of the fields. It was on a hillside that

He preached His greatest sermon, and when in the last agony He sought a place to meet His God, it was the quiet of a garden. Of all places in the world where life

NATURE'S HAUNTS

can be lived to its fullest and freest, where it can be met in its greatest variety and beauty, there is none to equal the open country.

> "God made the country, and man made the town.
> What wonder, then, that health and virtue, gifts
> That can alone make sweet the bitter draught
> That life holds out to all, should most abound
> And least be threatened in the fields and groves!"
>
> —COWPER.

There is virtue in country houses, in gardens and orchards, in fields, streams, and groves, in rustic recreations and plain manners, that neither cities nor universities enjoy.—ALCOTT.

Country life rather spoils one for the so-called luxuries. A farmer may indeed have only a small cash income, but at least he eats at the first table. He may have the sweetest of milk, the freshest of eggs, or the ripest of fruit; all these things, though he must work and sweat for them, the farmer may have in unmeasured abundance and without a thought of what they cost.

Country Life Is Ever Changing.—One of the greatest curses of mill and factory work of all kinds is its monotony; the same process repeated hour after hour, and day after day. In the country there is indeed monotonous work, but rarely monotony. No task continues very long, everything changes infinitely with the seasons. Nature, disliking monotony, is ever changing and restless, bringing us a storm to drive the haymakers from their fields, sending rain to stop the ploughing, or a frost to hurry the corn-harvest. Everything is full of adventure! A man who has been a farmer for two hours at the mowing must suddenly turn blacksmith, and tinker with wrench and hammer when his machine breaks down. Later in the day he becomes dairyman, gardener, poultryman, and merchant. There is no kind of wheat but is grist to his mill; there is no knowledge that he cannot use. Who is so free to be a citizen as he? Who is so free to take his part in town meetings and serve his State in some one of the many offices which form the great organization of our commonwealth?

"In view of such circumstances and opportunities, life in the country should be, and could be made, the best and most complete life possible to a human being. Country life is the best cradle of the race. To have a good home and rear a family in the heart of a great city

is well-nigh impossible for the average laboring man. The struggle for existence is too fierce and the opportunity in childhood and youth for self-expression and initiative is too meager. The environment is too vast, complex, and overwhelming, with nothing worth while for the child to do. Individuals may stand, but generations will slip on such an increased plane of life. From this point it can be truly said, we think that God made the country while man made the town. The real, vital possibilities of country life are without number. The surface attractions of the city are most alluring. A focussing of the public mind upon the problem, its pros and cons, will, it is hoped, turn the scales without delay in favor of country life and its substantial benefits." *

Appreciation of Nature and Farm Life.—The rural teacher works in an environment rich in living things. She should develop a respect and love for the most common in her surroundings. She is to be a teacher of pupils coming from Nature's haunts, and to interest them she herself must first be informed of Nature's work. To know the common birds, their habits, songs, and nesting places, to know the common trees and inspire the child to love and appreciate their beauty and usefulness, to know something about common farm practices, the production of farm crops, the raising of animals, their care and use; to have a knowledge of farm machinery in common use, all these and many more interesting things should be a part of the rural teacher's training in order that she may teach her subject-matter with a knowledge of her surroundings and motivate her teaching by use of first-hand material.

* From Kennedy's *Rural Life and the Rural School.*

In discussing this thought in the *Iowa Manual of Methods*, C. P. Colegrove says:

> No teacher should fail to give Nature Study and Elementary Agriculture a place in the work of the school. The great majority of the pupils in our elementary schools will join the army of industrial workers in field, shop, and factory. Agriculture is the dominant industry of our State. If teachers are discreet and enthusiastic in teaching these subjects they can make them a means of helping the interest and efficiency of the instruction in all other subjects in the course. These subjects should not be considered as extras, but as an essential part of the school program. They should serve to interest pupils in farm work and farm life, to connect school life and home life, to train pupils in habits of observation of common things, and create in pupils a respect for intelligent industry and an appreciation of labor industrial processes as factors in our civilization.

Appreciation for Country People and Their Problems.—The rural teacher must realize that she is working with a group of individuals, not differing fundamentally from other people, but differing in the nature of their work, their home life, and their social contacts. The farmer works by himself with his family, and his contacts with other people are less than in the case of urban residents. The rural teacher should understand this and prepare herself so that she will possess the following:

An Open Mind.—Among these problems the teacher should interest herself in the social life of the community. The high cost of production as compared to the profits, the best kind of school, the public highway question, the church and its decadent condition, taxes on land as compared to tax-free securities and tenantry, are a few of the many troublesome problems of the farmer that the rural teacher should understand. She should know that such problems are difficult to solve.

She must realize that the farmer alone makes his decisions independently and becomes more or less conservative. Likewise she must realize that rural people are close to Nature and the elements; that drought and flood, frost and hot wind, army-worm and chinch-bug all are causes of discouragement, and often destroy in a few days future prospects and shatter forward-looking plans.

A Willingness to Co-operate.—The rural-minded teacher will strive to organize the farmers and their wives into parent-teachers' associations, community centers, or neighborhood clubs, or make use of whatever organization may be at hand for the purpose of studying the farm home problems. No place is so well adapted for the solution of the farmers' problems as the school. It is an institution that belongs to all the people of the community, and the wide-awake teacher will see that she can render a great service to her people by bringing them together both for social contact and for the serious consideration of vital problems.

A Sympathetic Attitude.—The teacher must recognize that the farm mother faces many problems peculiar to her farm home, and these problems must be met and solved. Around this farm home hinge all the major activities of the farm. The housewife becomes a nurse and a physician. She is an adviser and a copartner with her husband in every activity. The rural teacher must understand this and appreciate that when she deals with a farm mother she is dealing with a busy woman, and that whatever she can do to assist her will help in the solution of the rural problem.

A Desire to Live in the Neighborhood.—The teacher will choose to live in the neighborhood where she teaches.

She will visit the homes, get acquainted with her patrons, and learn the environment of the boys and girls of her school. Many teachers fail because they do not understand the home environment of their children. Children ofttimes display peculiar attitudes that teachers cannot understand until they see the home, converse with the father and mother, and catch a glimpse of the surroundings and a touch of the atmosphere to which children are subjected outside of school hours.

Understand the Progress Made in Rural Life.—The rural teacher must appreciate that country life has progressed. Many who write on "rural life" leave the impression that life in the country is not to be desired. Rural life has its difficulties, but life anywhere will no doubt have its drawbacks. Life depends upon the individual, whether in the heart of the city or in the quiet country place. To-day, "rural life" is not what it was in pioneer days, with its lack of labor-saving devices, with inadequate means of transportation, with poor schools, poor roads, no telephones, no mail delivery, and no improved homes. On the contrary, every means, in a physical way, that can aid enjoyment has been utilized. Labor-saving devices have been introduced until nearly every step in the production of any crop is done by machinery. In one State an automobile to every five persons makes it possible for the farmer to keep in close touch with the world. Better schools are being established for rural children. Since 1912 many consolidated schools have been organized in the United States, which points toward the fact that the farmer demands a better type of school. Roads are being improved, and soon the farmer will be out of the mud. The following table indicates what one State did in her

road-building program during the last few years. This table could be duplicated in every State in the Union.

	DURING 1922	SINCE PRIMARY ROADS WERE ESTABLISHED
Roads built to line and grade	939.58 miles	2,540.28 miles
Roads gravel-surfaced	352.16 miles	816.82 miles
Roads surfaced with oiled macadam		8.54 miles
Roads paved	98.66 miles	314.96 miles
Number of bridges and culverts built	1,761 structures	3,261 structures
Tile drains	440 miles	1,711.2 miles

The Federal Aid Plan Gets Results.—The road improvement which has already been accomplished under the Federal Aid Plan shows that it is effective in getting results. During the five years 1919 to 1923, there were completed under this plan 23,285 miles of hard-surfaced roads of various types costing a total of $407,446,910, or an average of $17,500 per mile. Of this total cost the Federal Government paid $233,558,999, approximately $10,000 per mile.

With a telephone in every home, the farmer knows what is going on around him, and cannot be isolated as he once was. What would our forefathers have thought if they could have had their mail delivered every day, and in that mail received not only one paper but several daily papers, magazines, and market reports?

Rural homes are found provided with all the modern conveniences that do away with much of the drudgery of the farm women, making it possible for them to enjoy themselves with their city sisters.

In order that the student of rural life may become

more familiar with a few of the farm and farm-home conveniences, the following excerpts are taken from a complete rural social survey in three typical consoli-

RESULTS OF THE CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL DISTRICT SURVEY NO. 1

TOTAL NUMBER OF HOMES IN DISTRICT, 132. TOTAL NUMBER OF TENANT HOMES, 55

	NO. IN ALL HOMES	NO. IN TENANT HOMES	CONVENIENCES ABOUT THE FARM AND BARN	NO. ON ALL FARMS	NO. ON TENANT FARMS
Average size of homes in rooms	9	9	Manure-spreader	106	45
Running water	51	16	Gas-engine	94	45
Bathtub	55	14	Grain elevator	42	17
Indoor toilet	52	16	Silo	84	36
Electric lights	69	20	Tractor	26	11
Power washer	86	27	Hay-loader	36	18
Electric iron	59	16	Milking machine.		
Carpet-sweeper	61	17	Trucks	4	2
Hot-air furnace	75	29	Corn-shredder	5	2
Hot water or steam	33	1	Double-row corn-plough	6	3
Telephone	128	51	Thrashing-machine	30	19
Refrigerator	47	12	Windmill and tank	34	19
Gas cook-stove	16	1	Running water in yard	28	19
Oil cook-stove	75	31	Cream-separator	10	5
Pianos	70	10	Gang-plough	32	18
Other musical instruments	62	26	Manure-carrier	26	12
Sleeping-porches	29	3			
Automobiles	140	51			
1½-story houses	8	4			
1-story houses	3				

dated school districts in a mid-Western State in 1921, showing that the farmers of these localities have progressed.* Similar illustrations could be shown from many rural sections in many States of the Union.

* A complete copy of this survey may be secured by writing to the Department of Rural Education, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

With situations such as the following, becoming more and more common, life in the country is not dreary. Work on a farm with devices and labor-saving machinery

RESULTS OF THE CONSOLIDATED DISTRICT SCHOOL SURVEY NO. 2

TOTAL NUMBER OF HOMES IN DISTRICT, 83. TOTAL NUMBER OF TENANT HOMES, 47

	NO. IN ALL HOMES	NO. IN TENANT HOMES	CONVENIENCES ABOUT THE FARM AND BARN	NO. ON ALL FARMS	NO. ON TENANT FARMS
Average size of homes in rooms.	8	7	Manure-spreader.	64	47
Running water...	20	10	Gas-engine.....	74	39
Bathtub.....	15	5	Grain elevator...	23	19
Indoor toilet.....	12	4	Tractors.....	13	8
Electric lights....	32	11	Electric motors..	1	
Gas lights.....	9	4	Trucks.....	3	
Power washer....	58	35	Milking machines	1	1
Electric iron.....	24	8			
Gas iron.....	8	6			
Carpet-sweeper...	36	18			
Vacuum cleaner..	29	11			
Furnace, hot-air, or Steam-heat..	31	13			
Telephone.....	81	45			
Gas cook-stove...	10	4			
Piano.....	28	13			
Other musical instruments.....	57	25			
Sleeping-porches..	14	4			
Automobiles.....	81	50			
2-story houses....	69	37			
1½-story houses..	11	8			
1-story houses....	2				
2½-story houses..	1	1			

indicated in the tables on pages 9, 10, and 11 would be far from drudgery.

Reading Material in Rural Homes.—That farm homes do not lack for reading material in the shape of libraries,

RESULTS OF THE CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL DISTRICT SURVEY NO. 3

TOTAL NUMBER OF HOMES IN DISTRICT, 170. TOTAL NUMBER OF TENANT HOMES, 95

	NO. IN ALL HOMES	NO. IN TENANT HOMES	CONVENIENCES ABOUT THE FARM AND BARN	NO. ON ALL FARMS	NO. ON TENANT FARMS
Average size of homes in rooms.	7	6	Manure-spreader	151	86
Running water...	20	5	Manure-carrier..	13	7
Bathtub.....	30	9	Gas-engine.....	110	61
Indoor toilet.....	17	4	Cream-separator.	80	49
Electric lights....	23	10	Grain elevator...	27	13
Gas lights.....	24	13	Double-row corn plough.....	3	2
Power washer....	57	21	Interest in a thrashing-machine.....	21	11
Gas iron..... Carpet-sweeper.	61	31	Windmill and tank.....	89	24
Furnace, hot-air, or Steam-heat..	30	14	Silo.....	52	32
Telephone.....	136	77	Gang-plough....	59	34
Refrigerator.....	10	6	Tractor.....	24	16
Gas cook-stove...	6	3	Running water in yard.....	32	19
Oil cook-stove....	108	60	Milking machine.	4	2
Pianos.....	72	35	Hay-loader.....	75	45
Other musical instruments.....	88	43	Corn-husker.....		1
Sleeping-porches..	9	3	Corn-shredder...	4	2
Automobiles.....	146	72	Truck.....	7	3
2-story houses....	106	54	Sorghum-mill....	1	
1½-story houses..	44	28			
1-story houses....	4	2			

magazines, and farm papers is shown by the following tabulated lists from each community. However, the difficulty is not so much in numbers as in the lack of any incentive or purposeful ambition to get from these libraries and magazines the wealth of material and enjoyment that rests therein. The incentive must be given by the rural leader who desires to get the farmer

and his wife interested in their own problems of education and enjoyment.

DISTRICT NO. 1

KIND OF MATERIAL	IN 61 HOMES OWNED BY OCCUPANTS	IN 42 HOMES OCCUPIED BY TENANTS
Books	6,399	4,046
Daily papers	82	57
Weekly papers	7	6
Magazines	61	55
Farm papers	158	116
Church papers	49	42

DISTRICT NO. 2

KIND OF MATERIAL	IN 31 HOMES OWNED BY OCCUPANTS	IN 38 HOMES OCCUPIED BY TENANTS
Books	3,195	2,286
Daily papers	69	57
Weekly papers	40	64
Magazines	68	54
Farm papers	112	88
Church papers	5	..

DISTRICT NO. 3

KIND OF MATERIAL	IN 45 HOMES OWNED BY OCCUPANTS	IN 48 HOMES OCCUPIED BY TENANTS
Books	3,120	2,977
Daily papers	85	87
Weekly papers	65	28
Magazines	72	53
Farm papers	154	148
Church papers	6	3

Realization of the Advantage in Working with Rural Children.—The greatest teacher is experience. Country children acquire knowledge of production, learn the habits of the birds and wild animals, discover insects and plant diseases that injure the crops, and learn how

A LESSON IN GEOGRAPHY FROM NATURE'S TEXT-BOOK

to destroy pests. They are taught and trained, in fact grow up, with the implements of farm husbandry, and obtain more or less skill in all the farm operations that bring wealth to the family. The country child grows in an atmosphere of work which, if not carried to extreme, is one of his greatest blessings in later life. Chores to be done, errands to be run, little odd jobs to be finished, all these have a part in the development of a growing child. He grows not only physically

strong, but he has a chance to develop judgment, tact, reason, and self-reliance. Rural children appreciate what is done for them more than other groups because their opportunities of receiving attention from other sources are limited.

Children should be led by the teacher out into Nature, set in the midst of loveliness, lost in the beauty and grandeur of Nature's glee. Those of us who teach should open the child's mind to his natural existence, develop his sense of responsibility and of self-dependence, train him to respect the resources of the earth, teach him the obligations of citizenship, interest him sympathetically in the occupations of man, quicken his response to human life in general, and touch his imagination with the spiritual forces of the world.

In Love with Her Job.—The hired man who drops his axe when dinner is called, even though he may have the weapon raised high in the air ready to strike, is not really in love with his job. The workman who wears out his watch-chain pulling his timepiece out of his pocket when quitting time approaches is not thinking of how much he can accomplish for his employer. Likewise the rural teacher who keeps her mind upon Friday afternoon's three-thirty period and upon the week-end activities in her home community is not in love with her job.

A Task Worthy of Best Effort.—The teacher in the humblest one-room school must appreciate that her task is important and worth while. She must realize that she is dealing with the future citizens of a great commonwealth; with boys and girls that deserve the best training, because they are to become the future citizens of a free America. They must receive proper instruction under the direction of a sincere, honest, en-

terprising teacher. She must realize that parents are watching with deep interest concerning the work of their children in the school. She must be willing to sacrifice time and do more than is absolutely required in order that greater ends may be attained. She must invest herself as working capital and so work each day that when the day is finished she can feel that she has done all in her power to help her children.

Understand and Love Children.—A teacher must have a clear understanding of children. She must see the loveliness of child character, its sweet sincerity, its wealth of affection, its power of faith. She must see the marvel of an unfolding life like the unfolding of the petals of a beautiful flower that finally blossoms into complete beauty to add to the world's enjoyment. What a joy to be instrumental in taking a little untrained child that is more or less crude in habit and by precept and example direct him through the various metamorphic changes that must come, and at last see him approach the teacher's ideal of manhood and womanhood.

Back Pay.—This wonderful development of the child is accomplished by the teacher when she sees clearly his possibilities, is touched with a compassion that will not let her rest until her love for him has found satisfaction and her faith in him has come to fruition. There is no other task given to man that bears such heavy responsibility as that of being a teacher. On the other hand, there is no bonus, no pension, no compensation or back pay so satisfying as the hearty handshake of some student who says to his former teacher: "You are the one who gave me the inspiration that started me on my road to success. To you and to the ideals that you gave me back there in that little one-room school, I owe all that I am."

TOPICS

Study the following suggested questions and topics in connection with the tabulated data given on pages 9, 10, 11, and 12 of this chapter.

(1) Point out the distinct differences in these localities.

(2) Make a list of the different items that would help in the cultural life of these people.

(3) What is the percentage of tenantry in these localities?

(4) Find the percentage of each of the following found in each locality for both types of homes (tenants and owners). Then check each item and conclude which district leads.

1. Running water.
2. Bathtubs.
3. Power washer.
4. Manure-spreaders.
5. Sleeping-porches.
6. Gas-engines.
7. Automobiles.
8. Pianos.
9. Telephones.
10. Electric lights.

(5) What is the average number of each of the following in each locality.

1. Books in the home library?
2. Daily papers in each home?
3. Weekly papers in each home?
4. Magazines in each home?
5. Farm papers in each home?
6. Church papers in each home?

(6) What is the significance of bathtubs, sleeping-porches, power washers, and automobiles in a survey like this?

(7) If a teacher were given her choice of these neighborhoods, which one would she choose? Why?

(8) In these communities do you find the farmer or his wife ahead in labor-saving devices?

(9) Is there anything in these tabulations that would indicate extravagance on the part of the farmer?

(10) Where would you suggest that there might be improvement on these farms and in these homes?

QUESTIONS

1. What are some means by which a farmer may get his boys thoroughly interested in the work on the farm?
2. What are the disadvantages of bringing up a family in the city?
3. What tends to make the farmer conservative?
4. Do you consider the work of a country housewife of to-day a drudgery? If so, why? If not, why?
5. Compare the life of the farmer of to-day with the life of the farmer about thirty years ago.
6. Would you rather send a child to kindergarten for one year or send him to the farm with his grandparents for one year? Why?
7. Why is the operation of the farm a family enterprise?
8. What can a rural teacher from college do in order to make the farmer think she is not superior to himself?
9. Why does not the average farm boy or girl value farm life more highly?
10. Should the farmer going to college take up a subject that is not related directly with farming?
11. What luxuries may the farmer enjoy that are unknown to people of the city?
12. In what way does a farmer's work differ from that of any other workman?
13. What benefit does the country boy get from learning the elements of agriculture?
14. Why do some people who live on the farm always see the drudgery side of life?
15. What part is the school taking to improve conditions on the farm?
16. Is the farmer progressing? Give proof.
17. Are the country characteristics noticeable as much to-day as twenty-five years ago? If not, why?
18. Would it be better to be a financially poor farmer than a financially poor laboring man of the city? Why?
19. Why is there less chance for monotony in farm work than in work of the city?
20. How does work around the country home help to develop character?

21. Does the farmer of to-day save as much money as the earlier farmer? If not, is the expense of the modern home equipment the cause for such decrease?
22. Why should Nature study be taught more extensively in school? Do you think it would help develop character?
23. Would it be a good thing if it could be arranged that city children, who have no suitable playground, could spend part of their summer vacation in the country doing enough light work to earn their board? Why?
24. Why does the city seem to attract the young man and woman when they are living in the country where they have every convenience?
25. Why does a hired hand, who works on the farm during the summer months, say that he is unable to see the beauties of Nature because his employer doesn't give him time?

PROBLEMS

1. Miss X has charge of a rural school in a community that is not interested in having agriculture taught in the school. Suggest a program that you would work out to cause a change in this attitude.
2. Children in a certain rural school seem to have no love or appreciation for nature. Give a constructive program that you would employ to arouse interest.
3. How would you counteract the feeling of unrest in rural communities?
4. Mrs. Smith is a patron of your school. She works very hard with home duties. She is indifferent to your invitations to come to the school. She seems to have no interest, even though she has four children attending. How would you proceed to secure her interest?
5. Mrs. "Y" has three children in school. Her husband operates a large farm. She takes care of the garden, chickens, and washes all the milking utensils, besides doing her own housework. Would you expect this woman to take part in your school programs? Why?

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CHAPTER II

RURAL INSTITUTIONS AND ORGANIZATIONS

Section I. Farm Organizations

Rural life is influenced by many organizations and institutions. These agencies are at work, each in its own sphere, assisting in no small way to recast the social, economic, and educational life of rural people. The home, the church, and the school are the fundamental institutions in society. Around these basic institutions many other organizations have arisen to supplement their efforts but not to supplant them. Each agency is striving to do its work with the one ultimate aim in mind—the uplift of rural life and rural institutions.

These agencies are legion. The Farm Bureau, Grange, County Y. M. and Y. W. C. A., Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Boys' and Girls' Clubs (Project Work), Dairy Test Association, co-operative organizations, Farmers' Equity and Farmers' Union constitute a few of the many excellent organizations that are at work in the rural field. The county agent and the county home-demonstration agent have also done much to mould better ideals in the country.

These organizations and individuals are not all active in any one locality, but it would be difficult to find a rural school district in the Middle West where at least one or more did not function to a greater or less degree.

The Relation of the Teacher to These Organizations.—The teacher is a leader. She becomes, because of her position, the one individual in the community that

ought to stand for co-operation, better homes, better schools, and a greater community spirit. In the first place, her position as director of children requires that she be a leader, and the more ability she can display here, the greater will be her influence upon the whole community. She is at work in the only democratic, public-owned institution in the neighborhood, and naturally people look to her for a type of leadership not found in any one else. She usually comes from outside the school district, and this fact would permit her to do many things that those living within the neighborhood could not do because of strifes and jealousies. The teacher, then, because of her natural position as leader, should stand ready to do all she can for any worthy organization of farmers or farmers' wives, because:

(1) These organizations are usually managed by men and women who are the natural leaders in their respective communities. They are the people of the community who have a vision. If the teacher desires to come in contact with rural leaders who understand rural situations, this is her opportunity.

(2) In these organizations much attention is given to the study of economic and social questions and their effect on rural life. The teacher needs this information to fully appreciate the problems confronting the people with whom she works.

(3) There are groups of people in the rural community who are striving toward co-operation by banding themselves together in these organizations. They need encouragement, for if there is any one virtue that needs to be practised in both rural and urban society to-day it is co-operation.

The teacher should do everything within her power to help these groups that are struggling toward higher ideals. The following suggested activities will assist the teacher in finding her place of leadership:

(1) She can offer her personal services.

(2) Conduct school programs for the organization.

(3) Put up school exhibits.

(4) Organize spelling contests as a part of the organization program.

(5) Assist the parents in caring for their children during programs by appointing some of the older boys and girls as assistants.

(6) Attend the meetings of the organization.

(7) If possible be an active member of the organization.

The teacher, in a rural community, ought to know as much as possible about the organizations and individuals that may be active in her school district. She must be in a position to speak intelligently about their activities, teach the boys and girls about the good qualities of these organizations, and strive to emulate everything that stands for community betterment, remembering that the school is not the only institution striving to uplift rural life.

In order that a clearer understanding may be had regarding these organizations, a careful study of them should be made. The following general outline is suggested for such a study:

(1) Origin and history.

(2) Purposes.

(3) Working plan of the organization.

(4) Work that has thus far been accomplished by the organization.

(5) Method and means of co-operation between this organization and the school.

Since the Farm Bureau is at present one of the outstanding farmers' organizations, we give the following information about it for careful study. It is suggested that other organizations be treated similarly.

Definition.—J. R. Howard, the first president of the American Farm Bureau Federation, defines the Farm Bureau as follows:

> The county Farm Bureau is a voluntary organization of people engaged in farming, and has for its object the promotion of the economic and social interests of agriculture, including research and education, the farm home and the rural community. It is non-secret, non-partisan, and non-sectarian, and it is its policy as an organization not to engage in commercial activities. It is open to both men and women on equal terms.

Serves as Channel.—The Farm Bureau serves as a channel of information from farmer to agricultural college, and from college to farmer. Through the county and home-demonstration agent the Farm Bureau brings to the federal department of agriculture, and the agricultural college, the farmer's view-point, and also serves as an agency through which the services of these great public institutions can be made readily available to the people. It serves to develop and popularize the best practices in agriculture and home economics. It is peculiarly American, and serves to point the way to the complete and efficient organization of our nation's agriculture in promoting the welfare of the rural people and the public in general. The law pertaining to Farm Bureau organizations provides for the employment of special agents: county agents, home-demonstration agents, and junior-club agents. It is intended that

these employed agents shall be thoroughly trained and experienced. It is the duty of the agents, first, to become familiar with local conditions and to co-operate with the work through the local and county Farm Bureau organization in putting on demonstrations tending to show better methods; second, to counsel with the local people in securing and applying information regarding the successful experience and acquired facts not already generally applied in the community; and third, to assist in working out definite plans and a permanent program. The agents are expected also to bring to the local people the information and services of extension specialists and other agencies. Information and the results of research and investigation are disseminated through these agents. The Farm Bureau is a special agency for the purpose of bringing to the entire rural population in the freest possible manner all of the latest information from these public sources.

Farmer Organizations Not New in the United States.—Organization of the farmers is not a new idea. Thousands of agricultural associations such as farmers' clubs, unions, granges, equities, gleaners, and other secret and non-secret fraternal associations, including also other co-operative associations, have rendered a very valuable service for many years. It is the purpose of the Farm Bureau to unify the efforts of these existing organizations and to strengthen the work which they are doing.

Origin and History.—*Began in South.*—The so-called county-agent work in the United States had its origin in an effort to prevent the threatened destruction of the cotton industry in the South by the boll-weevil. The first federal demonstration agents were appointed in the State of Texas in 1904. This soon developed into

a demonstration movement throughout the whole South. At first these federal agents were appointed to work in several counties.

Spread to Northern States.—District demonstration work began in the Northern States in 1909. In 1911

A FARM BUREAU PICNIC

the first county agents were appointed in the North, the first one being in Broome County, New York. In the following year a small appropriation was secured from Congress for developing this work in the Northern States. The passage of the Smith-Lever or co-operative agricultural extension act by the United States in 1914 made available a large appropriation for promoting extension work in agriculture and home economics through co-operation between the U. S. Department of

Agriculture and the several States' agricultural colleges. The federal Smith-Lever law has since been reinforced by legislative enactment supplementary thereto in each of the various States.

Co-operation a Big Factor.—It became evident early in the development of this agricultural extension movement that the co-operation of the local people in an organized way was most essential to success. It was quickly demonstrated that public funds could be used more economically and certainly more effectively where the spirit of co-operation had been developed and where organization had been perfected.

World War Caused Rapid Growth.—The declaration of a state of war with Germany in the spring of 1917 presented a new emergency, and necessitated the immediate organization of agriculture for its greatest efficiency. The development of county Farm Bureaus proceeded rapidly during the following months. They were organized as a war necessity for the purpose of promoting food-production campaigns, finding and distributing seeds and fertilizers, handling the farm-labor problem, utilizing the full available team and tractor power, providing farm credit, and many other purposes. Congress made emergency appropriations as a part of the war program for the extension of this work, which was conducted through the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the State agricultural colleges.

Reconstruction Period.—Following the war and the withdrawing of emergency appropriations from the Federal Government, farmers everywhere took up the work of reorganization in recognition of the need of such an institution in handling the great problems of reconstruction. The earnestness with which the farmers

everywhere took hold of the movement is manifested at the present time by the existence of county farm bureaus everywhere, and the formation of State and nation-wide federations.

Purposes.—The Farm Bureau is an association of people interested in rural affairs, which has for its purpose the development of a more economic agriculture, the establishment of community ideals, and the furtherance of all efforts of the people, the State, and the government for the well-being, prosperity, and happiness of country people.

The purpose of the Farm Bureau is to assist in making the farm business more profitable, the farm home more comfortable and attractive, and the community a better place in which to live. It seeks to perform in an organized way certain essential activities which cannot be accomplished through individual effort.

The primary purposes of the Farm Bureau are set out by L. R. Simons, Circular No. 13, U. S. Bureau of Agriculture, as follows:

(1) To encourage self-help through developing and exercising leadership in the rural affairs of each community.

(2) To reveal to all the people of the county the agricultural possibilities of the county, and how they may be realized.

(3) To furnish the means whereby the agricultural problems of the county and the problems of the farm home may be systematically studied and their solution attempted through a county program of work to secure the well-being, prosperity, and happiness of all rural people.

(4) To co-ordinate the efforts of existing rural agricultural forces, organized or unorganized, and to promote new lines of effort.

(5) To bring to agents representing the organization, the State Agricultural College, and the Federal Department of Agriculture, the counsel and advice of the best people in the county as to what ought to be done and how to do it.

(6) To furnish the necessary local machinery for easily and quickly supplying every community in the county with information of value to that community, or to the county as a whole.

Working Plan of the Organization.—*Membership.*—The Farm Bureau organization is based, first of all, upon a representative membership well distributed throughout the county. Membership, as a rule, is open to any citizen of the county or any non-resident owning land in the county, subject to the paymentof the necessary dues and compliance with the articles of incorporation and by-laws. It is purposed that this membership shall be composed mainly of farmers and farm-owners.

Officers of County and District.—The Farm Bureau organization provides for a director in each community or township, in addition to the four regular county officers, president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer. These officers and directors are elected annually by the Farm Bureau members. In order to strengthen the county organization and to meet the needs of the individual communities or townships, it has been customary to perfect community or township organizations as a part of the county unit. The community committee is made up of a chairman and from one to five other members. Each member is selected because of his special fitness as leader of a project. This leader then becomes responsible for his project, such as a dairy, poultry, or beef, and supervises its activities.

A Definite Program.—By the above plan the Farm Bureau affords a direct channel through which each county, community, and individual farm can be reached. It is purposed that the various township organizations and the county Farm Bureau board of directors shall determine each year a definite program of work. This depends on local needs and conditions, such as local leadership, finances, employed help, and the assistance available from outside agencies. To illustrate: A township is divided into as many districts as there are Farm Bureau centers. Each district plans a meeting for the purpose of selecting the topics that they would like to have discussed for the coming winter. Suppose now that a township has had three such meetings, and they decide in No. 1 that Poultry is the topic, No. 2 Dairy Farming, and in No. 3 Hog-Raising. These desires are reported to the county Farm Bureau board, who in turn report to the county agent. After the entire county has completed such district meetings, then the county agent is ready to make out his year's program, calling in the talent he needs from national or State sources.

Results.—The results accomplished in relation to the control of the cotton boll-weevil, the notable progress of boys' and girls' club work, and the development of community spirit have perhaps been the outstanding achievements of the Farm Bureau in the Southern States. In the Northern and Western States many different lines of work have been taken up. Information and data from the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the various agricultural colleges have been more effectively disseminated than ever before, likewise improved types of seed and live stock have been given

wide distribution through the Farm Bureau organization.

The welding together of more than a million farmers in 1,507 Farm Bureau organizations and 46 State Farm Bureau federations has meant a great deal to the agricultural interests of the United States. Helping to secure legislation that gave agriculture in the United States greater marketing facilities and farm-loan banks must be accredited to the Farm Bureau activities. Other results of co-operation of no less importance in the many lines of the farming enterprise include work with crops, soils, live-stock, dairying, agricultural engineering, poultry, and bees.

Food Wins War.—During the war it was universally recognized that the efficient organization of all agricultural interests was essential. The slogan adopted was "Food Will Win the War." Millions of men in all countries had turned from the field of agriculture to the field of war, yet it was essential that the production of food should not only be maintained but actually increased. The Farm Bureaus everywhere took hold of the problems of seed distribution; they boosted production in every line in order that the necessary food might be provided. It has been said that in not one single war measure did the farmers fail to go over the top in an organized way.

Immediately following the war the problems of reconstruction fell upon agriculture with unabated force. Federal appropriations were withdrawn in a very great measure, and it was necessary for the Farm Bureaus to depend very largely upon their own local resources. County Farm Bureaus were reorganized, State federations were formed, and finally the American Farm Bureau Federation was perfected.

The Farm Bureau reaches out into every State and every agricultural county in the United States. It reaches out to the individual farmer and to the entire family living on the farm. In many States the Farm Bureau work came into existence at the time when the hog-cholera epidemic was at its height. The co-operation of the farmers and other agencies for the purpose of controlling the spread of this much-dreaded contagion and the many demonstrations conducted in the use of antihog-cholera serum resulted in an inestimable saving. This work was followed up for several years, and has had a very permanent value.

The Farm Bureau and the Country School.—The Farm Bureau has recognized from the beginning the importance of education. The schools likewise have recognized this need. The underlying purpose of the Farm Bureau in this movement has been to afford every boy and girl preparing for the business of farming at least the same advantages as are provided for those preparing for other lines of work. Every year many young men and women are starting out in the world farming for themselves. It is the purpose of the Farm Bureau to give them every possible assistance and co-operation.

It is the purpose of the Farm Bureau to co-operate with the schools in behalf of the many boys and girls who are regularly enrolled, and it is likewise their purpose to give the same attention to adults and to those who are not enrolled in regular classes. This is done through short courses and community meetings of many kinds. The country school building becomes the natural center of the community and the teacher the natural leader; therefore Farm Bureau leaders expect a very

close co-operation between their organization and the school.

QUESTIONS FOR STUDY OF FARM ORGANIZATIONS

In case a more detailed study of farm organizations is desired, the following questions are suggested. Each organization may be clearly studied through the series of questions. If answered to the student's satisfaction he will have a better knowledge and can arrive at definite conclusions.

1. Does the organization stand for better schools and education in general?
2. Does the organization stand for social uplift?
3. Does it have a complete and effective organization?
4. Does it include women in its membership?
5. Does the organization stand for financial gain?
6. Does it interest itself in scientific agriculture?
7. Does the organization stand for recreation?
8. Does the organization have membership dues?
9. Does it stand for co-operation?
10. What influence has it had upon the people?

Give as many specific instances as possible to prove your position on each question.

Section II. The Rural Home

Rural life and institutions cannot be discussed without including the home, for it is the view of all interested in life and society that of all institutions the family is the most important. It is the institution dedicated by society to the reproduction of human beings, both biologically and socially.

The country home, like any home, is the place where ideas, ideals, customs, and habits are impressed. The farm home is really all the farm; the buildings, trees, garden, the house in which the family lives, and the family itself. The average city home, with all of its varied interests and complexities, becomes a resort

chiefly for smaller children, and a hotel, or filling station, for the older members of the family.

The farm home becomes a strong and influential agency for country-life progress; the child's first knowl-

A MODERN IOWA FARM HOME

edge of work comes from this source. His idea of co-operation both in work and play is fostered here.

The Rural Teacher and the Home.—Since the school, home, and church are foundational, certainly the workers in these institutions must have duties in common. What interests the parents concerning their children ought to be of interest to the teacher. The teacher and home must co-operate if both would accomplish the best results.

Rural teachers sometimes fail. One of the causes of failure is lack of acquaintance, lack of personal contact, with the home that is so necessary to success in the teaching profession. Well-meaning people will often criticise the teacher because they do not understand her motives. A mother who ten years ago was a teacher, and taught the a b c method, now lives in the country and sends her child to school to an excellent teacher, who teaches reading by the phonetic, word, or sentence method. She should be the most valued ally of the teacher, but between them arises a reserve that prevents the best results. This is a clear case of not understanding each other. Many, many cases of this kind could be mentioned, where the parents stand as it were on one side of this mysterious gulf and criticise the teacher, while on the other side stands the teacher criticising the parents. If the teachers in our rural and small-town schools want to do all in their power to make themselves successful, let them, during the first month of their school, make definite plans for visiting the homes of all the children in their school.

Many questions confront the young inexperienced teacher regarding the matter of visiting the homes such as the following:

Should a teacher go into a home without being invited?

The teacher needs to go into the home just as much as the pastor. She should know the homes of her children. She should not wait until she is invited or she might never go to some homes. Most homes will gladly welcome a visit from the teacher, because parents are usually interested in the welfare of their children. Many parents have not been accustomed to teachers visiting in their homes, and quite often when

visits are made, it is because Johnnie has been bad and the teacher is driven to this means as a last resort to secure peace and order. Teachers should make home visitation a definite part of their teaching program without any thought of waiting until an invitation has been sent from individual homes.

Another question of importance that must be answered:

What will the teacher attempt to do when in the home?

The teacher must remember that her visit is perhaps to bridge gulfs and chasms of misunderstandings, and she must get acquainted. She cannot do this by assuming the atmosphere of a fashionable caller, leaving her calling-card on a silver platter in the hall, asking and answering a few questions about the weather. No, rather she must in the best form possible interest herself, without flattery, and seeming wonderment, in the interests of the farmer, the farmer's wife, and especially in the pets, or interests, of the children. When supper is over she ought not to sit in the parlor while the mother washes the dishes; rather she should go to the kitchen to help dry the dishes and make herself congenial.

What should she learn while in the home?

The teacher will discover the environment of the children in the home, their likes and dislikes. She will learn in what kind of music the family is interested and the books, papers, and magazines that the family reads. The amusements and recreation indulged in by the family and the conveniences about the home will be evident. The attitude of the parents toward the children, and the attitude of children toward the parents,

and the apparent relation of the family to the church and Sunday-school will be discovered. All these and no doubt many other minor influences will be discovered by the visiting teacher.

The following suggested questions will assist the visiting teacher in determining the environment of the children:

1. What do they have to read?
2. What musical instruments do they have, and what type of music do they play?
3. Does the family have any time for recreation?
4. If they do, what type of recreation do they enjoy?
5. Are vacations planned for the family?
6. Do they have games in the home? What kind?
7. Do the children have half-holidays?
8. What kind and amount of work must they do?
9. What partnership do parents have with their children?
10. Do parents enjoy recreation and companionship with the children?
11. Do parents grant a weekly allowance to each child?
12. Do parents interest themselves in boys' and girls' clubs?

What she finds is not for any other purpose than to make her a more conscientious and sympathetic teacher. What a medium for gossip spores if she were foolish enough to tell all she found out.

Again the question of the length of time a teacher should remain in the home and how often she should visit must be answered.

This home visitation cannot be done in the same way that one might make five or six fashionable calls in an

afternoon. This visit, as has been indicated above, is for getting acquainted, and that usually can be done better by being with the family during at least one meal. In many rural homes it becomes very convenient for the teacher to stay overnight, and this gives further opportunity for knowing the family and farm-home conditions. It would seem best then to suggest that to try to be in the home for at least one meal, and perhaps to stay overnight, would, in most cases, be enough time to get acquainted. If the teacher really comes to know the home during a period of visitation as indicated above, she will not need to again visit this home over as long a period, but can keep up her acquaintance by short calls and visits as opportunities may present.

The Physical Conditions in Rural Homes.—The physical conditions in rural homes have changed greatly during the past twenty years, as is shown in Chapter I. However, the student of rural life must realize that not all rural homes have made such wonderful progress, and that usually there is a very close relation between physical conditions and ideals. In order that a brief study may be made, rural homes have been divided into three classes: ideal, average, and inferior.

Ideal Home.—Ideal country homes are very much more common now than a few years ago. However, the ideal home, as far as the physical side is concerned, will not save the country, but, other things being equal, the ideal homes stand for high ideals.

This ideal farm home has all the conveniences of the finest city home: labor-saving devices, sleeping-porches, linen-closets, basement under entire house, dumb-waiter, built-in refrigerator, running water, electric light and power, bathroom, office library, laundry-room,

vegetable-room, large living-room, well-equipped kitchen, heated garage in connection with the home, steam or hot-water heat, well-finished attic, clothes-chute, and many other little additions that make the physical side of the home complete. This home has been planned with the greatest care. It is convenient, well-proportioned, and has been built according to the best scientific principles. The exterior corresponds with the surroundings. In every detail art and beauty have joined with practical usefulness to produce a beautiful home.

Average Home.—There are more average people in the world than any other type. This is true regarding homes in the Middle Western States, as is shown by several recent surveys. This average home may be the old homestead that has undergone many changes since falling into the hands of young people of a new generation. The house has been rearranged and semimodernized. The old cellar has been dug out, the entire house raised and placed upon a higher wall, giving more basement room. Spacious front and back porches are built. Water is piped for kitchen use. A well-built cesspool receives all waste water from the kitchen-sink, the kitchen lavatory, and the wash water from the laundry-tubs in the basement. Electricity has been brought in from a power line that passes the farm, and power has been applied to washing and churning. A pipeless furnace has been added. The kitchen has been remodelled so as to make the housework easier. Everything possible has been done to improve the conditions without building a new house.

The average home may not have all of these conveniences—it may have more—but the average farm home stands as a living example of what the farmer thinks

when he is planning for larger and better things for his family.

Inferior Home.—The inferior rural home is rapidly passing. It usually shelters a family that has been unfortunate or one that does not have the higher ideals.

This home can be distinguished from the other type at a glance; the dooryard is usually an index of the interior. There are no conveniences in house or barn, no labor devices, no comforts, simply four walls in which are found a few rooms (three or four on an average), with nothing in them to make for a real home.

The physical side of a home is very important. However, fine buildings, labor-saving devices, fine furniture and all the appointments that can be added, do not make the home. The home is the sum total of those elements and experiences that leave their impression upon the very life and character of those who compose the family.

The following is given here because of the many excellent suggestions regarding the physical side of rural homes:

What a Farm Residence Should Be

The possibilities of farmhouse architecture are well given in the following quotation from an address by Dean L. H. Baily, given before the students of Cornell Agricultural College in 1910:

(1) The farm residence should fit the farm country. The house should be broad and low rather than narrow and tall. We need a type of farm architecture that seems to grow out of farming conditions. That is, the structure must look like a farmhouse rather than like a town house.

(2) The house should be very simple in its general plan and construction. This is true of all houses, but particularly of

country houses. The farmhouse should be condensed, whether it is large or small. The beauty of a building lies not in its external ornamentation, but in its proportions, its fitness to conditions, and in the materials of which it is constructed.

(3) The ordinary farmhouse should have a very simple roof scheme, with as few valleys and peaks and flashings as possible. The beauty of the house should lie in its dignified and simple skylines rather than in its complex and broken features.

(4) The house should be planned to save steps to the utmost. The kitchen, dining-room, wood-shed, and cellar should all be within easy reach of one another. So far as possible, the rooms that are daily used together or between which there is very much travel, particularly on the part of the housewife, should be on the same floor, with no steps up and down. We should so plan a house that the woman may be able to save much of her energy for other activities than merely those of housekeeping.

(5) The house should be so planned and made that it can be easily cleaned. This means an absence of all elaborate spindle work, filigree, and also of heavy and upholstered hangings in the furnishings. Now that we are appreciating the relation of dust to health, we must take a new attitude toward the construction and the furnishing of residences.

(6) The house should be constructed or remodelled with the idea of applying power to some of the household work, as to the laundry, pumping, eventually to the cleaning of the rooms, and to other labor. We have been applying power to the work of the farm and the barn, but we have not adapted it to any great extent to the work of the house itself.

(7) Every modern house should have water running into it and out of it. Within twenty-five years every good farm residence, and even many tenant houses, will be as well provided with water-supply facilities as are city homes.

(8) The ordinary farmhouse must be planned in such a way that the members of the family can do the housework. In many cases it is possible to reduce the work of keeping house by at least one-quarter or even one-third, if the house plan is carefully studied with this idea in mind.

(9) You all know that most of the unexpected visitors to a farmhouse go to the back door or side door. This means that the back of the house is to be as highly developed in some re-

spects as the front. Perhaps it will mean in the end that there really is no "back" to the house at all, and that the establishment shall "face" all ways and have no unkempt back yard.

(10) The house must be provided with ample storage space. Groceries are often bought in quantity. The winter's supplies are "put down" in the cellar. Ordinarily, the larger part of this storage is in the cellar or the attic. This necessitates many steps. It is a question whether a good deal of this material would not better be stored on the first floor, with a place specially designed for it, like an enlarged closet.

(11) The first floor and the cellar are the centers of the family activity. The members of the family spend much of their time out-of-doors. This means that the first floor should not be approached by high steps from the outside, and also that washrooms and other service rooms should be on this floor and easy of access, and preferably near the farmside entrance.

(12) When additions are placed on an old house, care should be taken to have them match the style of the original. If left to the whim of the ordinary carpenter, additions to residences are not likely to present a suitable appearance.

The following abstract from an address made by Director L. H. Baily to the students of Cornell College in 1913, three years later, explains in an excellent manner the changes that are rapidly coming into the architecture of farm homes.

The Farm Plan and the House Plan

On the side of the individual farmer, the process of redirecting his whole farm scheme is now well under way. By means of direction, aid, and sympathy, a new farm plan will work out in cases where it is needed, although it will still take considerable time.

Farming is a business system and, like other business systems, it must have a center. The center of the farm business is the residence. When we strike the farmhouse we strike the very center of rural life. It is just as much a problem to reorganize the farmhouse as it is to reorganize the farm itself.

Most of our farmhouses were built many years ago. The older ones were adapted to a former kind of country life and to a type of farming that is gradually changing. Not a few houses are gradually falling into disuse. Some homes are all that can be desired; but the larger part of the establishments in New York State must be either thoroughly remodelled or else rebuilt within the next forty years. It is very important, therefore, that we do not follow old lines of house planning and construction.

Of course, we do not mean that the farmer is to discard his residence before such time as he desires to do so, and certainly not before he feels that his income warrants him to make a change. My point is that as fast as the farmhouses are rebuilt or reconstructed, certain new features must be incorporated into them. Neither do we mean that the farmer must build expensively. A cheap house may serve its purpose in the class of construction to which it belongs, and it is as easy to make it convenient as to make it inconvenient.

The farm scheme has been largely traditional, fields being added as the forests have been cleared; and these fields tend to remain year after year. A modern farm management obliterates all unnecessary limits and lines and makes a new plan of the whole property. Similarly, the farmhouse has been very largely traditional in its plan and construction. A familiar type of house is the long upright-and-wing, with the kitchen at one end and the living-rooms at the farther end, and with perhaps the cellar under the upright, or parlor, necessitating much travel. Only a part of the house was warmed, so that the living was nearly all concentrated in the kitchen and in one or two rooms adjoining it. Any rambling type lacks the concentration that is needed in middle-class new houses of the present day.

The introduction of water systems, the difficulty of obtaining household help, the expense of heating, the removal of the handling of milk from the residence in many cases, and many other changes, have made a new design of farmhouse quite as essential as a new plan of the farm itself.

Section III. The Rural Church

The term rural church, as discussed here, refers to all denominations, sects, and sections, Protestant and

Catholic, orthodox and liberal, in towns of 2,500 and less as well as in the open country.

In America there can be no permanently sound, vigorous national life unless life in the country is vigorous and sound. Country life cannot be morally strong, physically healthy, and socially attractive unless the church functions properly. The country church is one of the great roots of civilization. It stands with the home and the school to form the very foundation of our nation. The church has properly held the position as the dictator of religious thought, the director of social events, and the sponsor for the best ideals in a community. This institution has for ages functioned satisfactorily in this important work, and must be upheld by the thinking people of our commonwealth or the nation must pay the penalty.

God's great purpose for men is the highest possible development of each personality and of the human race as a whole. It is essential to this growth that men shall hold adequate ideals of character and life. The Christian believes that these ideals must spring from a clear appreciation of God's purpose, and from a consuming desire to reproduce the spirit and life of Jesus. Therefore, the function of the country church is to create, to maintain, and to enlarge both individual and community ideals, under the inspiration and guidance of the Christian motive and teaching, and to help rural people to incarnate these ideals in personal and family life, in industrial effort, in political development, and in all social relationships.

Many rural churches do not plan a live program. They take into consideration the traditional duties of the church—services twice on Sunday and prayer-

meeting on Wednesday evening with an occasional Ladies' Aid supper to help pay for a new rug to be used in the parsonage. The present-day church must have a program that not only cares for the religious growth and training of its members but for the social life as well. The rural church must also stand ready to lead in as

A MODERN RURAL CHURCH

many legitimate activities as possible, and at all times place Christian leadership in charge. The church building ought to be used more than six hours a week. What firm or enterprise that really means to carry on any line of business in earnest would be satisfied to keep its doors open only six hours a week? The business man would look upon such an investment of $150,000 to $500,000 as bringing in very poor interest returns. And yet hundreds of churches do nothing to lead young peo-

ple, children, and the middle-aged in their midweek social life. The rural church is missing a wonderful opportunity, and as a result many other institutions—some of them questionable—have come in to entertain the people.

There are many channels through which the church may serve the community. The country church should foster private and public worship of God. Its preaching should bring a ringing spiritual message to the community, and interpret the gospel for the uplift of motive and the transformation and development of character.

Kenyon L. Butterfield holds the problem of the rural church as the most important aspect of the rural problem. It touches the highest point in the redirection of rural life. It sounds the deepest note in the harmonizing of the factors of a permanent rural civilization. It speaks the most eloquent word in the struggle to maintain the status of the farming class. Can the church rise to its opportunities?

Below is a suggested program of service for a rural church. A part of this program well worked out would revolutionize any rural community.

(1) Preaching every Sunday.
(2) Singing by the congregation.
(3) Studying topics with rural setting.
(4) Grading Bible instruction for children.
(5) Studying the Bible.
(6) Organizing clubs within the church for community service projects; bringing outside speakers at club dinners, etc., to discuss community work.
(7) Utilizing existing women's organizations for larger and more effective service.
(8) Giving public advocacy to various forms of social service, such as clean-up days, community picnics, play festivals, town improvement, Arbor Day, beautifying cemeteries or parks.

(9) Preaching contentment with rural life and adequacy of country as a life investment.
(10) Making church sociables community affairs.
(11) Instigating and aiding community co-operation for such ends as the following:
  (*a*) Public health and sanitation.
  (*b*) Good roads.
  (*c*) School education for rural life, and consolidated schools.
  (*d*) Provisions for public recreation, and a Saturday half-holiday for agricultural laborers.
  (*e*) Beauty of village, roadsides, and private grounds.
(12) Furnishing leaders for special community tasks.
(13) Special work with boys and girls.
(14) Meeting of official boards and organizations regularly and completely organized with proper program of work.
(15) Keeping records and regular reports of work in finances.
(16) Training in young people's meetings.

Attitude of the Teacher Toward the Church.—In former discussions it has been shown that the church, home, and school are co-operating institutions. Each institution is vitally interested in the stand taken by the other.

Since the teacher is the active agent of the community in one of these institutions, she at once becomes a co-worker with the pastor and the parents in furthering the ideals of the community. The teacher may argue that she did not or does not intend to help run the church. The contract does not call for this activity, but there are many duties falling upon the teacher that will never appear in the contract. The teacher who deserves the name *leader* will not stop to consider the contract alone; she will go the second mile and not ask the reason why. She realizes that her example counts for much, especially with the children of her school. She knows that by placing herself in the posi-

tion of one who believes in moral and religious teaching, she is upholding the best ideals of the nation and at the same time assisting its basic institutions.

There are several ways in which the teacher may help carry on a vital program in the church.

(1) Every teacher ought to attend her own church. If the church of her choice is not at hand, she should select one that answers as nearly as possible and attend that church regularly. The teacher's presence in the church at the appointed time of worship indicates where she stands in this very important matter.

(2) The teacher of ability ought to help in one of the allied church organizations. A teacher who really deserves the name will not necessarily rush home every week-end in order to get away from the small community, but she will remain in her district to get better acquainted, to lead young people's meetings, or to teach a Sunday-school class.

(3) A teacher should study the problems of the rural church and keep in touch with the outside allied forces.

The church needs trained leaders. Especially is this true in the Sunday school. The church schools have not been organized in an efficient manner; any one interested in teaching the Bible has been allowed to take a class of children and make an attempt at teaching without even high-school training. The Sunday school needs trained teachers just as much as the day school, and a teacher in a community can be of great service if she will use her pedagogical training for the advancement of the Sunday school. Since she is, by the very nature of the situation, a co-worker it will be her duty not only to study the immediate problems but also to be a student of the church at large.

QUESTIONS

(1) What farm organization is at work in your home neighborhood? What influence has it had on the people?
(2) After studying several farm organizations, what conclusions can you make on the following:
  (*a*) Is there a chance for the teacher to help?
  (*b*) Should the school board permit these organizations to meet in the schoolhouse?
  (*c*) What is the effect of these organizations upon the school?
  (*d*) Why expect a teacher to know anything about farm organizations?
(3) Show how the home is a fundamental rural institution.
(4) Show the intimate relation between home, church, and school.
(5) Good teachers are very busy people; ought we to expect them to make plans to visit homes in their district?
(6) (*a*) Might a teacher become too well acquainted with the homes of her district? Explain.
  (*b*) Is there danger of parents expecting the teacher to favor homes in which she has visited?
(7) Just what help will visiting the patrons' homes be to a teacher? Is it worth the effort?
(8) What direct relation does the church hold to the ideals and ambitions of its members?
(9) What does the community expect of the teacher along church activities? Why?
(10) If the teacher is going to work in the church, how many different tasks should she attempt?
(11) What do you understand by the Smith-Hughes and the Smith-Lever acts?

PROBLEMS

(1) The Farm Bureau is active in the district where Miss X teaches. The chairman of the Farmers' Institute program committee asks the teacher to put on an educational program for one evening. What kind of a program ought to be prepared? Prepare such a program.

(2) Think of twenty homes in your neighborhood at home. Answer the following questions about them by checking proper answer.

1. Running water:	Yes.....	No.....
2. Furnace:	Yes.....	No.....
3. Washing machine:	Yes.....	No.....
4. Piano:	Yes.....	No.....
5. Sleeping porch:	Yes.....	No.....
6. Bathroom:	Yes.....	No.....
7. Silo:	Yes.....	No.....
8. Automobile:	Yes.....	No.....
9. Tractor:	Yes.....	No.....
10. Full basement:	Yes.....	No.....

(3) Place these twenty homes under three heads: ideal, average, and inferior—and discover where the majority will be found. Is what you discover satisfactory? Why?

(4) You are a teacher in a community where there is a church of your denomination. The pastor is anxious to have your assistance in the Sunday school, Young People's Society, and the choir. What would you do?

(5) In your district you have two married ladies who have taught school. They are very critical of your methods of teaching. How would you handle such a situation?

(6) The topics below should be assigned to individual students and reports given in class. Prospective rural teachers should investigate as many of these topics as time will permit. The student may use the outline as given just preceding the Farm Bureau or the questions at the end of the Farm Bureau discussions in studying the organizations:

1. Farm Bureaus.
2. American Society of Equity.
3. Farmers' Unions.
4. Social Center Work.
5. Supervision of Rural Schools.
6. Why Boys Leave the Farm.
7. Dairy Test Associations.
8. Good Roads.
9. National Non-Partisan League.

10. Co-operative Elevators.
11. Report of the Country Life Commission.
12. County Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A.
13. Grange.
14. Boy Scouts.
15. Camp-Fire Girls.
16. Co-operative Stores.
17. Egg Associations.
18. Parent-Teachers' Associations.
19. County Home Demonstration Agents.
20. County Agents.
21. Boys' and Girls' Clubs.
22. Farmers' Institutes.
23. Recreation on the Farm.
24. Farm Home.
25. Bluebirds.
26. Health in the Country Schools.
27. Co-operative Associations.
28. Agriculture Credits and Land Banks.
29. The Farm Woman's Part in Community Activities.
30. Tenantry.
31. Country Church.
32. School and Home Projects.

REFERENCES

1. Foght, H. W.: *The Rural Teacher and His Work*, Chapters III, V.
2. Gillette, J. M.: *Rural Sociology*, Chapter XVII, p. 346, XVIII, XX.
3. Galpin, C. J.: *Rural Life*, Chapters V, X, XI.
4. Cubberley, E. P.: *Rural Life and Education*, Chapter III.
5. United States Agricultural Bulletins, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.
6. State Agricultural College, your own State, Bulletin Department.

(In writing to the National or State Department state that you are a teacher and wish to use material in school work. Ask for their bulletin list. Recent bulletins can be secured on nearly every topic listed at close of this chapter.)

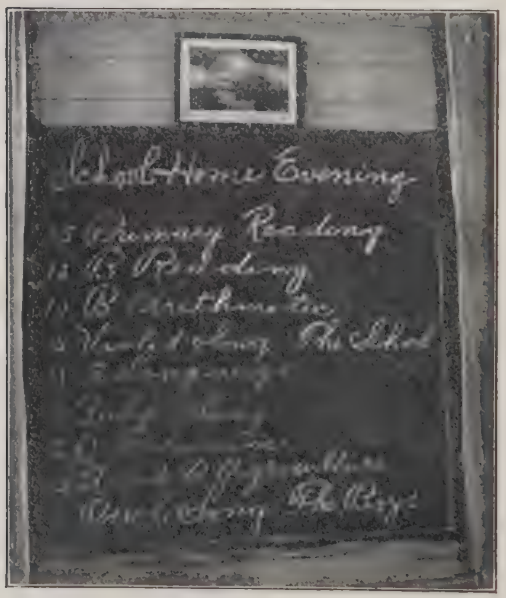
CHAPTER III

THE COMMUNITY CENTER

A community center is a group of people met together for the purpose of social, educational, or recreational uplift. This community may be an ordinary school district of four sections, including all the families, not simply a "chosen few," as is so often the case, but all who live within the borders of the territory covered; or it may be a consolidated school district with ALL of its patrons included. The aim is to secure the co-operation and interest of all those who live within a natural area of communication, so that the community members may all come together, not occasionally but frequently, to discuss their common interests and enjoy themselves as one big family. The community center may be organized with a president, secretary and treasurer and various committees. It may also adopt a constitution and by-laws, but such a complex organization is not necessary, nor is it always advisable.

In many rural communities there may be other live organizations such as the Farm Bureau, Mothers' Club, Parent-Teacher organization that are answering all the needs of a community or social center. In that case the proper attitude for the teacher to take is that of co-operation. It would be very unwise for a teacher to organize any activity that did not really have a place in the community and which did not meet with the hearty support of the majority of the school patrons.

A TYPICAL COMMUNITY-CENTER MEETING



A SCHOOL-HOME EVENING

Object.—Rural surveys reveal that patrons do not visit their schools. Renters sometimes are uninterested. Landowners do not care to see school improvements. Recreation and sociability are lacking. Rural people do not discuss their own problems in community gatherings. Therefore the community center is organized to bring parents, patrons, and all concerned into closer touch with the school, and to bring the people of the community together in their agricultural, social, educational, and recreational thinking.

Growth of Movement.—The movement to use the school plant for community purposes is gaining ground rapidly in many parts of the United States, both in urban and rural districts. The community center meeting is of particular value in rural districts in helping to counteract the natural tendency of farm life toward isolation.

Beginning with a community center organization in one rural district, eight years ago, the members of the rural department of the Iowa State Teachers' College have watched the spread of the community-center idea into all of the demonstration schools associated with the college during that time. Two of these schools are of the nature of village schools, three are consolidated schools, and the remaining number are typical rural schools. A careful study of the results obtained leads to the conclusion that the community-center meeting may be made a very helpful factor in building up the school and the community which it serves.

Leadership Required.—Every teacher interested in the upbuilding of the school covets the power of leadership in the community. Leadership may be defined as the ability to get others to do what the leader thinks

should be done. Napoleon had the power of leadership to such a remarkable degree that, had he been beset by a band of robbers, he, no doubt, would have immediately taken command of the band and marched them off to suit his own purposes. The successful community leader, unlike the military leader of Napoleon's day, keeps himself in the background as much as possible and stimulates others in the community into active participation that they may share more largely in the benefits of that activity.

The Teacher an Important Factor in a Community Organization.—Usually it devolves upon the teacher to take the initiative in developing a community-center organization. The most effective way to begin to get acquainted is to explain something of the purpose and plans of the proposed community-center organization and invite the people of the community to gather at the schoolhouse on a given date to attend a program. People of proper influence should be taken into the teacher's confidence and the purpose and plan thoroughly explained to them. These people should be invited to attend and assist in giving inspiration and enthusiasm for such meetings. It is very important that the teacher understands the people of her community before attempting any form of organization.

Seven Closely Related Groups.—The community-center meeting makes it possible to bring together, at regular intervals, the different groups of people who are, in one way or another, connected with the school, and upon whose co-operation the larger success of the school depends. These personal factors are: (1) The teacher. (2) The pupils. (3) The parents. (4) The school board. (5) The taxpayer. (6) The young people of

the community. (7) The county superintendent of schools.

The parents, when their attention is called to the matter, put no other interest above the education of their children. The members of the school board may be very much interested in the successful progress of the school, or they may be so busy with their own personal affairs that the condition of the school escapes their notice. The taxpayers of the community who have no children in the school have their attention called to the school chiefly because of their being touched by the school in that most tender spot, the pocket-book. The young people of the community often find that the ties are severed which once bound them to the school and interested them in its progress. The county superintendent welcomes opportunities to meet with the people in the interests of better schools.

Rural Survey and Its Results.—A rural life survey, made in the districts of the demonstration schools associated with the Iowa State Teachers' College, discloses several tendencies that the community-center meetings counteract: (1) In reply to the inquiry, "How often do you visit the school?" the answer in about 80 per cent of the cases was: "We aim to visit the school at least once a year, but we didn't get there this year." It is noticeable that the new interest in the school gained through visiting it for community-center meetings is carried over into visits to the school while it is in regular session. (2) In many districts only a few farmers in the four square miles of territory which comprise the school district send any children to the school. A large proportion of the farmers in the district, having no children to send to the rural school, have no direct con-

nection with it or interest in its progress except as taxpayers. The community-center meetings gather these families together in the schoolhouse to see the work of the school, to note its progress, to hear its needs discussed, and to find in it a center for the improvement of community life. (3) In a number of school districts, more than one-half of the acreage is farmed by renters. Often the children of tenant farmers comprise more than one half of the school. The first of March finds many of these families moving into new districts. The community-center meetings furnish an excellent opportunity for the new-comers in the district to get acquainted with their neighbors and to get into sympathy with the ideals and plans of the community. (4) There are many patrons of the demonstration schools who were born in foreign countries. In one district the fathers and mothers of all the children in the school were born in the Old World, and none of them had attended American schools. The community-center meetings offer these parents an excellent opportunity to get into touch with the spirit and ideals of American public schools. (5) Most of the farm homes in these districts are well supplied with daily papers and periodicals. A number of farmers reported that they took as many as twenty publications. Many said, however, that they did not read their farm papers very carefully. The debates and discussions in the community-center meetings on important rural life problems lead to a much more careful reading of these publications. (6) On many farms there were the most modern labor-saving machinery—the most modern farm buildings, such as sanitary dairy barns, silos, improved hog-houses, and power elevators in the corn-cribs; but on very few farms

were there modern houses equipped with modern labor-saving machinery and devices for the women. Discussions in community-center meetings of the modern farm home help to call attention to this discrimination against the farm women. (7) In several communities the answer to the question, "What do the young people do for recreation?" was: "They go to town nights." The community-center meeting provides a common meeting-place in the district which helps to meet the social needs of the young people. The supper, social hour, and games after the program are the most important in the community-center movement.

Thinking and Acting.—It is a law of human nature that the things we see and hear, we think and talk about. The things we think and talk about, we finally come to do, if we think and talk about them long enough. The teacher who can bring parents, school board, taxpayers, and young people together to see the work of the school and the condition of the building and equipment, and to hear the progress and needs of the school discussed, will send the parents, school board, taxpayers, and young people home to think about and discuss these things the next day. Out of this thinking and discussion will come actual assistance in building up the school along the lines in which there is evident need for progress. The co-operation of all is secured in a common purpose.

Helpful Folks in Every Community.—There exists among members of every rural community a remarkable amount of knowledge of the best things in education, in crop-raising, in animal husbandry, in modern home-making, in road-building, in religious training, in civic improvement, and in social affairs. There are also vast

latent enthusiasms and potential powers. The members of every community *know* better than the community *does*. The purpose of the community-center meeting is to bring the members of the community into close and active contact with each other, to disseminate through the community the best knowledge that its members possess, and to quicken the latent enthusiasm and energy into action.

Community Center a Clearing-House.—"I prize these meetings very highly," said a speaker on one program, "because they give me an opportunity to get acquainted with my neighbors and with what they are doing." It has been noted that a lukewarm member of a community, who presents some topic before the community-center meeting, is usually converted by that act into an enthusiastic booster. The parent who discusses how to improve the school becomes a better patron himself as well as helping to improve the school spirit of the community. The community-center meeting serves as a clearing-house where the best things known to the experience of the members of the community are contributed, to be redistributed throughout the whole community.

School a Common Interest.—The school is the community's one great common interest under the direction of a leader paid out of a common fund. The schoolhouse is the most fitting place in which to hold community meetings. Many people have been in the habit of judging the condition and equipment of the school building on the inside by the appearance of the grounds and the schoolhouse on the outside as they drive by. The community-center meeting held in the schoolhouse brings the school board, parents, and taxpayers into the build-

ing, where they may be tactfully led to see that provision should be made for correct lighting, heating, and ventilating of the schoolroom. Often to require an audience to sit for an hour and a half in the school seats is the most eloquent plea that can be made for improved seating arrangements. The ceilings, walls, floors, library, and other equipment may be made to tell their own needs.

The first purpose of a community-center organization is to build up the school in every way in which the school can be made to serve the interests of the children better. Other community interests which may be fostered by community-center meetings: good roads, the use of better seed and varieties of farm crops, better breeds of farm animals, improved farm machinery, systems of crop rotation, cultivation of the soil, better farm homes, better business organizations for buying and selling, power labor-saving machinery for women, community recreation, community sanitation, law enforcement, better fathers and mothers, fly-fighting campaign, civic responsibilities of the community, national ideals, and the reading of the best things in literature. Everything that makes for a better community makes for a better school, and a better school helps to make a better community.

When a warm personal regard grows up between the parents and the teacher as a result of associating together at the community-center meetings, the development of an orderly, wholesome, enthusiastic school spirit among the children of the school is greatly facilitated.

To develop a great interest in community meetings and make them the source of the most good to the com-

munity, they should be held at least once a month. Too long a period between meetings kills the interest. Some of the demonstration schools have developed such an interest that the people of the community want to hold their meetings oftener than once a month.

The Program.—The programs for the community meetings should be so planned that the children in the school and people in the community take part as well as invited speakers from the outside. Several recitations from the regular daily schedule will prove interesting and give the parents and taxpayers some idea of the progress the children are making and of how efficiently the money of the district is being expended. Reading classes, especially primary reading if well taught, phonics, drill work in arithmetic, agriculture, home economics, language lessons, and school songs offer splendid material for such demonstrations. Be honest with the audience. Let them see some of the regular school work which has not been specially prepared for the program.

The teacher might follow up these class exercises with a brief talk calling attention to the good things about the school and its equipment, then tactfully show the people some of the needs of the school. Do not urge expenditure of money beyond a very limited amount at the first meeting. The community-center meeting, like a snowball rolling down hill, gains in size and momentum the farther it goes. Tactful suggestions will lead the people to see for themselves in a little while what their school needs, and the thought will grow with repetition until the community will be ready to act.

The machinery of the organization is not especially important. Some communities like to elect officers.

Others prefer to leave the general directions of the meetings to the teacher. If the teacher can keep herself in the background and put some public-spirited member of the community into the foreground as chairman, this individual will take a more active interest in the welfare of the school and will shoulder a part of the responsibility for the success of the meetings. The chairman may be selected by a vote of the people or by appointment by the teacher. Some communities prefer to have the teacher act as chairman.

The Program as a Project.—The teacher should always be a positive factor in planning programs and carrying them out as effectively as possible. The teacher should study the people and the conditions in the neighborhood carefully and try to make such use of them as will result in the largest improvement of the school and betterment of the community.

The teacher may provide for the pupils of her school excellent lessons in composition and penmanship by asking them to write invitations to the community-center meeting to all the families in the neighborhood. Each time if possible these invitations are worded more cleverly, and written more neatly, than the time before. The pupils in the handwork class may make and properly decorate the envelopes. Usually, arrangements can be made to have the children distribute these invitations.

The development of a project centered in a Christmas program is illustrated in the following summary of the activities of the Eddy School, one of the rural demonstration schools associated with the Iowa State Teachers' College. The teacher began the preparations a month before the program was given. She endeavored to use all possible means of adding interest to the school work.

There were several minor projects to which the teacher needed to give attention in this particular program, and no doubt all of these could not be worked out in every school, but some of them could be used in any school to motivate school work and add interest to the program. This discussion was prepared by Miss Anna Gorman, the teacher, who reported as follows:

CHRISTMAS COMMUNITY MEETING, EDDY SCHOOL, CHRISTMAS, 1920

Our Pilgrim work over, we began to make preparations for Christmas. A meeting of the school children was called to determine the kind of program we should have. It was decided that as much of our work as possible, from that time on, should relate to Christmas and that the community should be invited to enjoy the results of our endeavor.

Language

The first grade wanted to have its sand-table represent a Santa Claus story, while the third grade, who did not believe in Santa Claus, wanted a true story about Christ. They chose *The Three Wise Men*. The fifth, sixth, and seventh grades voted to make booklets containing an original story about "How the Christmas Season Breaks the Monotony of Winter." All of these were to be placed on exhibition at the time of our meeting.

Various forms of invitations were written as a class exercise in language. A vote was taken to select the form to be used later when it was time to send out our cards.

Hand Work

A frieze was made for the blackboard as well as a border. This work was done in the seventh and first grades, following an approved pattern. A fireplace was needed for one of our plays and for one of the songs. This the sixth-grade boys offered to make in the manual-training class. The selection of the Christmas tree was left with a sixth and a fifth grade boy. The sixth-grade girls had charge of decorating it; they were assisted, however, by the first grade. For instance, one of our songs

called for "Popcorn as Snow" on the tree. The sixth-grade girls popped the corn in our kitchen, then turned it over to the first grade to string.

Another verse of the song called for stockings at the fireplace. The third-grade girls cut free-hand patterns and made the stockings from black construction paper. (Patterns were cut for the frieze in the same manner.) The seventh-grade girls cut the patterns and gave them to the first grade to color. They used water-colors. One child in the class, who was very careful about the appearance of the work, took charge and directed all the others.

For the programme, every member made his own costume. The fairy, who was a first-grade girl, made her cap, wings, and wand. The brownies, who were first-grade boys, made their caps and suits in class. A boy, who took the part of a professor, made his four-cornered cap and hemmed a borrowed coat to its proper length. Santa made his costume in class, as did each member. The teacher claimed no responsibility, but rather acted as an adviser and pushed or urged the work along. The stage furniture was made by the manual-training class; for instance, a screen was needed and was made by the class. The sixth-grade girls covered the frames with strips that the boys measured and cut from old window-shades that we had on hand. Designs were cut for invitations and the best selected for use.

Reading

First-grade stories about Santa, his reindeer, and his helpers were told, read, and dramatized. Short poems were memorized by the class; a few were chosen as numbers on our programme. Our welcome was learned by each first-grader and was given by one, chosen by the class, who could give it well. The play, readings, and songs were all taken up at this time for expression drills as well as dramatization work. The plays were read and discussed in class. Characters were then chosen for the different parts and each one began the task of preparing himself for it. (The class chose the characters for the different parts.)

Arithmetic

Much was done in measurements. The fireplace had to be measured and cut so that the parts would fit. The paper cov-

ering and bricks were all cut to scale. The screen called for the same kind of work. The frieze called for measurements of various types. The first-grade sand-table work, such as Santa's house, his sleigh, his reindeer, and his packages, all called for measurements. The domestic-science class apportioned the food supply among the district members. This called for practical arithmetic. Cost of food, as well as time and labor in preparation, was considered. The steps in this problem were as follows:

1. District members counted. Number of children, or the total number expected.
2. What to serve? Decided: Popcorn balls, apples, doughnuts, and coffee.
3. Size of the family which was going to furnish some materials.
4. How much they should bring.
5. Discussion as to cost of each article of food. Popcorn was not as costly as doughnuts, etc. Labor connected with each. No preparation for apples, therefore they were assigned to mothers who had small children and to whom time was precious. Cream for coffee assigned to dairy farmers. Later we decided that the domestic-science class be responsible for the making and serving of the coffee. Lunch was served by the class.

Citizenship, or Good-Fellowship, Class

Decision concerning gifts:

1. How to select for an individual.
2. How much to pay.
3. For whom to buy (names were drawn).
4. Every member to get a gift and each had one to buy.
5. Could they present other or more gifts? Yes.
6. Spirit of giving and receiving.
   (*a*) How to present.
   (*b*) How to accept.

Writing, or Penmanship

The form of the invitation chosen in the language and the design selected in handwork were to be combined now. Each child wrote his own invitation for his people. This took considerable practice before he was suited with his writing. Extra invitations were written by the best penmen for members who

did not have people in school. Invitations were delivered by the writer.

Programs were neatly written and sent home, so that the people knew what to expect.

All the written language work for exhibition must be considered here.

Geography and History

Many places of interest were located in the stories about Christ. The stories brought out considerable history, especially the history of that age.

Results

I. Room decorated suitable for Christmas.
   - (*a*) Exhibition screen filled with pupils' work.
   - (*b*) Sand-table representing first-grade story.
   - (*c*) Blackboard border and frieze above board.
   - (*d*) Christmas tree decorated.
   - (*e*) Fireplace decorated and lighted with red globe lanterns hidden in wood.
   - (*f*) House well lighted.

II. Time for children to arrive.
   - (*a*) Dressing for parts of program.
   - (*b*) Reception committee.
   - (*c*) Domestic-science class prepare lunch before program to avoid delay later.

III. Time for guests to arrive.
   - (*a*) Examination of all work on exhibition.
   - (*b*) Secure a suitable seat.

IV. Program proper:

Welcome ..... Dagny
Little poems by first-grade boys and girls
Santa Claus song ..... First Grade
Junior and Senior girls' play
Reading, "Pa is Santa" ..... Eleanor
Victor accompaniment with five voices
"Topsy Turvy Christmas" ..... School
"Good Night, Children" ..... Sung by entire group
(Sung while sitting beneath and around the lighted tree)

Distribution of gifts by a junior member, while the school huddles around the tree.
Thanks and good wishes exchanged.
Serving of refreshments.
Social for all.
(Advance pupils returned the next morning to help clean house.)

In order to summarize the important points to be considered in organizing and planning a community center the following has been added:

(1) The teacher should visit all the homes in the district and invite the patrons to attend a community meeting at the schoolhouse to see something of the work of the school.

(2) Select the most convenient date for the first meeting and advertise it widely by personal invitation by the pupils, by calls over the telephone, and by items in the newspaper.

(3) The program for the first meeting should contain three or four demonstrations of the actual work of the school. The teacher should introduce this work with a tactful suggestion that at each of the community-center meetings some of the regular work of the school will be shown to give parents and other taxpayers an opportunity to see the results of the expenditure of their money and note the progress made by the school from time to time.

Some kinds of school work which lend themselves very well to a place on the community-center program are: primary reading, phonics, drills, dramatized reading-lessons, compositions written for the language class and read by the writers, rhythm drills and singing by the school, especially with the Victrola; experiments and tests in geography, agriculture, and home economics;

rapid drills in the fundamental operations in arithmetic, and the working of practical problems at the board; and spelling from such a list as the "One Hundred Demons" or the "Thousand Words in Most Common Use," the competition being based on the idea of showing that every pupil in a competing group is perfect in his spelling of the whole list of common words.

(4) Explain tactfully that these meetings are not school entertainments, and that they are not old-fashioned lyceums or debating societies. Call attention to the fact that they are held in the schoolhouse because the school is the one organization which is supported by all the people, and that some of the regular school work will be shown to give the community some idea of the progress of the school. Explain that it is the purpose of the organization to lead to constant discussion of those problems of most immediate concern to the community.

(5) Introduce on the first program some members of the community or outside speakers who have personally been invited by you to speak on timely subjects in which they are much interested.

(6) Plan your program carefully so that it is not too long. Place your best number last and following it invite the people to gather at the schoolhouse once each month for similar meetings. Mingle with patrons after meeting.

(7) Suggest that, as a teacher, you would like to have the community elect two members of a program committee to serve with you in planning the work of the organization. Urge the people to do this. If they do not, then appoint the two additional members yourself.

(8) Develop all the initiative and leadership you can in your helpers by urging them to take the lead while you remain in the background. BUT SEE TO IT THAT THINGS ARE KEPT MOVING.

(9) Bring all the important interests representing your community into your community-center meetings, and give each a hearing there.

(10) Outside speakers are usually glad to have an opportunity to appear before these meetings. The county superintendent, county demonstration agents, physicians, bankers, Red Cross workers, county agents, county supervisors, township trustees, school directors, ministers, and other public-spirited citizens have been found very willing to address these meetings.

(11) The teacher may skillfully point out the needs of the school, which the people will appreciate more fully when they are assembled in the schoolhouse and can see the conditions. To require parents to sit for two hours in the poor seats of a schoolhouse is often a most eloquent argument.

(12) The teacher may further interest the patrons of the district by arranging an exhibit of hand work done by the pupils and placing it on exhibition during the evening of the community-center meeting. Nearly every community organization of people feel that the evening is not complete without having something to eat.

Below are some of the programs that have been given in the community-center meetings in the rural demonstration schools around Cedar Falls, Iowa, during the past, and are typical of those which have proved most successful:

Community-Center Programs

No. I

Community Singing	"America." "Keep the Home Fires Burning." "Old Folks at Home." "Star Spangled Banner."
Dramatization	"The Gingerbread Man," by Primary Grades.
Rhythm Work	With Victrola, by Entire School.
Address	County Agent.
Social Hour	Refreshments, Served by a Committee of School Patrons.

No. II

Music Appreciation	Pupils of School, with Victrola.
History Scene	"Landing of the Pilgrims," Pupils in Advanced History Class.
Folk Dances	Pupils of Primary Grades.
Address	Local Farmer—"Marketing Dairy Products."
Social Hour	Stunts and Games for Older People. Lunch Served by Older Girls of School.

No. III

Flag Drill	By School.
Practical Geography Lesson	"Trip to Yellowstone Park," by Advanced Class in Geography.
Address	Local Postmaster—"Tracing a Letter from Cedar Falls to New York."
Educational	Discussion of Post-Office Regulations.
Games	Number Contests. 101 or Bust. Bean-Bag Games.
Social Hour	Refreshments, Served by Social Committee.

No. IV

Poultry Program

Dramatization.....“Little Red Hen,” Primary Class.
“Getting Rid of Lice and Mites”.....An Eighth-Grade Pupil.
“How to Make Hens Produce More Eggs in Winter”.....A Farmer’s Wife.
“The Value of Children’s Poultry Clubs”.....County Superintendent.
Chicken Sandwiches and Coffee.

It will be noted that in these programs there are four phases stressed; not all phases occur each time however.

1. *The Children’s Part.*—The speaking of miscellaneous pieces that really have no merit in them is discouraged, but some of their actual daily work is used. The children are not drilled and trained for the occasion, but they simply prepare their recitations and appear before the parents and patrons in a class recitation the same as they would when regular school is in session. This enables the parents to see some actual school work and brings the parents in touch with the teacher’s method of instruction.

2. *The People of the Community.*—This type of program is different in that the children are not to do all of the appearing on the program, allowing the parents and young people to sit and look on. The people of the community, both old and young, will be invited and urged to do their share to help bring about a community consciousness. This can be done by staging community plays, community singing, debates, special club programs, and farm women’s meetings of various kinds.

When the people take an active part they become interested in their community center.

3. *The Outside Speaker.*—There are many people outside the community who would be glad to take part on the program for the good of the community and the cause of education. Any community needs the inspiration that can be brought to it by the local banker, postmaster, pastor, lawyer, the county superintendent, the county agent, or any one who has a message of cheer and value. Usually an invitation from the teacher or members of the community is sufficient. However, only those who have a message should be invited.

4. *The Social Hour.*—A community program would not be complete without the social phase. This usually means something to eat, and affords opportunity for neighbors to chat and discuss local topics of interest. This is one part of a community-center program in which every lady of the neighborhood may take part. It has always been the policy of those who conduct these programs to have a different committee in charge of the lunch for each month. In this way every family of the community enters into the responsibility for the success of the community center sometime during the year.

The following suggestive sentences are gleaned from the reports sent in by the demonstration-school teachers concerning their community-center meetings.

"Our patrons attend best when their children have a part on the program."

"Our people are particularly fond of good music."

"Debates by local people always make a strong program."

"The work of the children always takes very well."

"The people seem to appreciate refreshments, too."

"We try to have a member of each family take some part in each program."

"On nice evenings, our people like to play outdoor games."

"Our people are especially interested in the school work of the pupils, such as contests in good reading."

"We like best the programs in which the people of the community have an active part."

"All the parents were present at our last meeting."

"Our attendance is better when the children have a prominent part."

"With the exception of one number, all of our last program was given by the young people of the community."

"At our last meeting, the schoolhouse was so crowded that any accurate count was impossible."

"Mixed programs please the people in our district."

"The people here are much interested in seeing the regular school work of the pupils."

QUESTIONS

1. Justify the amount of time spent by the teacher in organizing a community center.
2. Why is the school the best place in which to organize a community center?
3. In what points do you consider a community center program differs from ordinary programs held at a country schoolhouse?
4. Suppose you found the following conditions in your school district, would you attempt to organize a community center?

   Sixteen families in the district: six families of foreigners that have twelve children in school; can speak but little English; renters; never mingle with English-speaking people. Three families of old people; no children in school now; heavy taxpayers. Three families of young married people; renters; no apparent interest in school; wives are high-school graduates; one husband an agricultural man. One family that has two children in school; the wife taught school about ten years ago; the husband has a high-school education; both are quite

critical of the school. Three families; owners; thrifty; nine children in school; parents all very much interested, but have little education.

5. If you were planning on an outside speaker, what would you like to know about him before the invitation is given?
6. Explain just how you would proceed to secure the people of the neighborhood to appear on the program.
7. Why should the people of the neighborhood take part on these programs?
8. Who should hold office in the community-center organization? Would it be wise to require certain standards or would it be satisfactory to allow any one to accept an office?
9. How would you plan for the social hour?
10. How would you select the kind of school work that you are going to place on the community program?

PROBLEMS

1. Miss B begins teaching in District No. 2. A community-center program has never been held in the school.
   (*a*) What kind of program would you suggest for the first meeting?
   (*b*) How would you get people out to the meeting?
   (*c*) Upon what night of the week would you hold it?
   (*d*) Would you need to ask the school board about using the schoolhouse?
2. The people of District No. 10 are very anxious to have a program at the schoolhouse. The teacher has just begun school. How soon should she begin making plans for such a program?
3. Given a school with very poor equipment. If the community can be improved through the community center, show how it can be done.
4. Given a rural school district with a goodly number of young people not in school. What can the teacher do to interest these young people?
5. The primary interest of the farmers of District No. 8 is dairying. Poultry interests the wives of this same sec-

tion. What could the teacher do to continue such interest and transfer a portion of it to the school?

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CHAPTER IV

THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS

The history of school organization and administration is too broad a subject to admit of comprehensive treatment in a book like this. However, a knowledge of existing forms of organization and their development is so essential for the rural teacher that a general discussion of rural school districts and their officers must be given.

Public Education and Evolution.—The present systems of organization and administration in our public schools are the result of a slow and gradual evolution. Horace A. Hollister says: "The nineteenth and the first decade of the twentieth centuries have staged no more remarkable action in the world's drama than the evolution of public education." *

At first education was administered almost solely by the church, the main motive being the general propagation of religious doctrines. Individual enterprises for the promotion of education occasionally sprang up, but the idea of a system of public education administered by trained experts developed very slowly in most countries.

Growth of the Idea of Democracy.—The growth of the idea of democracy has been one of the powerful factors in the development of sentiment favoring a system of public education. It has made the leaders of

* Horace A. Hollister, *The Administration of Education in a Democracy.*

thought realize the importance and need of universal education. This has been especially true in the United States. If we are to retain the free institutions for which our fathers fought we must maintain a complete and universal system of education. A republic must have an educated citizenship.

Colonists Recognized the Importance of Education.—A study of the history of our earliest colonies reveals the fact that from the very first a free government and a system of universal education were developed side by side. While all of the colonies shared more or less in this evolution, it developed most rapidly in Massachusetts. The essential features of a free common-school system as we now have it in all of the States of the Union were formulated there as early as 1642 and 1647.

Education Left to States.—When the framers of our national Constitution met, no provision was made for a national system of education. By common consent the entire organization and management of our public schools was left to the States. As a result of this policy of non-interference in the domain of public education by the Federal Government, several of the colonies, when they advanced to Statehood by the adoption of State constitutions, made provision in those constitutions for systems of public education. Two States stand out prominently in the early development of a system of public education; viz., Massachusetts and North Carolina. The former, because of the fullness of statement in her constitution, readily became a pattern for the other New England colonies, and later for the States of the Northwest Territory. Similarly, North Carolina became a model for the Southern States.

Two Types of Organization.—A study of the provisions for public education as made in the constitutions of some of the States reveals to us two dominant types of organization. One type is perhaps most clearly shown in the constitution of Massachusetts. In it are the ideals of the Pilgrims as they were evolved out of their colonial experiences. Their government was distinctively republican in form, but their management of a system of education was essentially democratic. The other type of school organization is that established in the Southern colonies. Out of the peculiar system of landholding established in the South there developed what is known as the county unit of control.

Local Control.—As the Federal Government passed the responsibility of the administration of our public schools to the States, so the States in turn through their constitutions and laws passed on that responsibility to the local communities. In fact, the decentralizing influences which were at work at that time had a marked effect on the organization of the schools. It was then that the idea of the school district as the local administrative unit became so firmly established in our educational system.

Size of Local Unit.—This brings us to the consideration of one of the most important factors in the organization of our school system; that is, the size of the educational units of territory. Shall the local school unit from which the children are brought together for school purposes be so small that they can conveniently walk to and from school? Or, shall it be extended so as to make the transportation of the children necessary, and, if so, shall the school district be responsible for such transportation? Again, shall the territory to be in-

cluded in one school organization for the purpose of taxation be limited to the area from which the children go to a single school? Or, shall it embrace the territory of several schools, so that the taxes may be spread uniformly over a larger area, and the people who are living either in the more prosperous sections or in sections where the expenses of conducting a school are for the time being low, be made to help maintain the schools of those who are less fortunately situated? These are questions that have been prominently before the public since the formation of State governments, and are to-day the fuel for more heated discussions than any other school question.

Reasons for Earlier Small Units.—The primary reason for the small unit was the fact that it was generally the most convenient and equitable arrangement under the existing social conditions. Also, the early connection of education with religion and its dependence upon the church for the administrative functions had much to do with the arrangement of units for school administration. As the congregation was the group to which the church ministered, so naturally the administration of educational affairs was similarly limited. Again, from the standpoint of taxation, the idea that general intelligence was a direct gain to the whole of society and well worth paying for had not yet fully developed.

Popularity of Smaller District Units.—The idea that the school should be an institution that is local both in government and maintenance has always been a popular one. People like to have their own school as they want it, without interference or dictation from authorities outside of their own immediate community. They want to determine for themselves the kind of school

building and equipment that they will have, the length of the school year, the salary to be paid the teacher, and the program of studies. They are also not inclined to assume financial responsibility for the support of schools outside of their own immediate vicinity.

Tendency Toward Larger Units.—With the increase in population in this country, especially in our cities and towns, with the development of our system of good public roads and rapid means of transportation, and with a more definite realization on the part of the public of what is needed for the successful administration of our schools, there has come a reaction against the small unit. The conditions which made a small district desirable in the earlier times no longer prevail. Legislation in most of the States has, therefore, gradually tended more and more toward the larger units of organization and more strongly centralized control of our schools.

Modern Types of Rural School Organization.—At present three distinct types of rural school districts still retain the essential principles of local control. All three types either have prevailed at some time in the past, or do now prevail, in one form or another in the New England States and north of the Mason and Dixon line. They are (1) the Local District Unit, (2) the Township Unit, and (3) the Consolidated District.

The Local District.—The local school district is known by different names in different States, such as Rural Independent District or Common School District. Whatever the name, the general plan of administrative practice is strikingly similar throughout the several States in which it prevails. There is usually a board of three school officers, known as directors or

trustees. In the most extreme forms of this type of school units, it has been the duty of this school board to levy the school taxes, supervise the erection or repairs of the schoolhouse, furnish the necessary supplies for the school, employ the teacher, select text-books, and determine the course of study and rules governing the school. In fact, the board controls all of the administrative functions of the school under its control. A more recent tendency, however, in many States where this type of organization still prevails, has been to modify to a greater or less degree the powers and duties of the board, and to place such responsibility as the selection of text-books and the making of a course of study in the hands of administrative officers of the township, county, or State.

The Township Unit.—The beginning of the town or township as a unit in the administration of school affairs is associated with the town meetings of the New England States. As it was extended throughout the country, however, it varied considerably in form from the New England type. There the township meant a settlement of people about a common center or village. In the West under the Congressional Survey, a township means a piece of land six miles square without any relation to population. The township unit differs essentially from the local district unit in two respects. First, it contains a larger area for the purpose of taxation. If the Congressional township, for instance, is the territory included in a school township, as is frequently the case, it means that the school taxes are levied equally over the entire thirty-six square miles for the support of all of the schools within that area. Thus it tends to equalize the financial responsibility among a larger

group of citizens. Secondly, the operation of the schools in the township unit is in the hands of a board that is influenced less by local sentiment.

The size of the school board in the township unit varies greatly in the different States. Indiana, for instance, has one member, a trustee. In Iowa, on the other hand, there is a director for each subdistrict, which means a board of from three to nine or more for each township. It is the duty of this board to provide schools for the entire township, just as does the board for one school in a local district.

The Consolidated District.—The two types of school districts that have been discussed are the units in which the one-teacher school essentially prevails. The school unit that is coming to be most generally known as the Consolidated District differs primarily from both of the other types. It brings together at a central place through a system of transportation enough pupils to make possible the organization of a modern graded-school system with several teachers under the direction of a trained supervising officer. As the name indicates, it is a district brought about by the consolidation of several units into one large school unit. It resembles, therefore, the school township in that it provides an area large enough for taxation purposes to make it possible to maintain a good school. In the matter of administration it resembles the local unit; it has one board which makes provision for all of the children at one central school within the district.

The County Unit.—As has been previously stated, the South, because of the peculiar system of landholding established there, developed a system of school administration in which the county was made the local unit. In most of the Southern States, a county board has gen-

eral charge of school affairs. This board issues instructions to the local trustees or directors, who, in turn, must report to it concerning the local schools. Two facts stand out in regard to the county unit plan. The unit of taxation is so much larger than any of the local unit types that very little difficulty is encountered in financing equal educational opportunities for all of the children of the county. Again, the unit is large enough to make it possible in administration to provide expert supervision for the rural schools equal to that provided in city school systems.

The County as a Unit for Supervision.—Thus far this discussion has considered school units primarily from the standpoints of taxation and of local administration. It should be noted that most of the States have recognized the county as the best unit for the purpose of professional supervision. Through the Central West, especially, the office of county superintendent carries with it important duties and powers. He inspects the schools, has general supervision of, and frequently controls, the certification of teachers, conducts teachers' institutes for the improvement of the teachers in service, and performs such other duties as may be required of him by law.

The State as a Unit.—While it is true that the earlier States passed on, as has been said, the responsibility for the administration of the schools to the local communities, the general tendency toward centralization, since then, has resulted in placing some important administrative functions in the hands of a State school official. Various names are given to that official in the different States, such as commissioner of education, superintendent of public instruction, or secretary of the State Board of Education. Some of the important adminis-

trative functions assigned to this official are (1) the supervision of school officials; (2) holding of conventions of county and city superintendents; (3) issuing and revoking of State teachers' certificates; (4) the making of an annual or biennial report on the conditions of the schools of the State; (5) and a general stimulative supervision of the entire school system.

A Typical Mid-Western County.—The accompanying map of Black Hawk County, Iowa, is presented for several reasons.

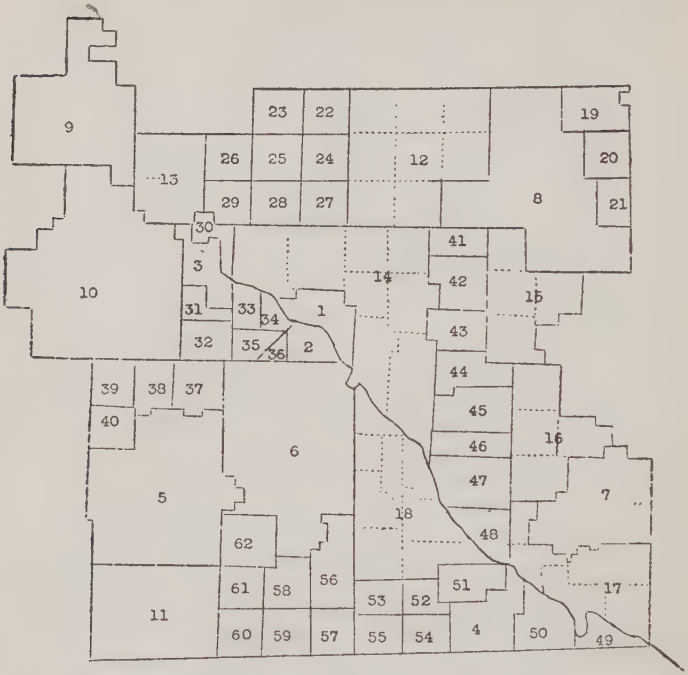
First, it shows the extent to which local "self-determination" may be carried in the organization of school districts. Notice the irregular boundaries of many of the school corporations.

Second, it clearly shows the different types of local school units: (1) the rural independent organization with a one-teacher school; (2) the school township with several one-room schools; (3) the consolidated district with one central graded school; (4) the city and town districts with their several graded schools.

Third, it shows the variations in the size of the territory that supports a single school.

Fourth, it shows the great inequalities in the educational opportunities offered to the country children. District No. 6 contains one of the finest rural consolidated schools in the United States, while within a few miles of it are to be found one-room schools which meet only the minimum legal requirements.

Fifth, it shows the absolute separation of school government from civil government. The civil county of Black Hawk is sixteen miles square. The school corporation boundaries follow neither Congressional, township, nor civil county lines.



MAP OF SCHOOL CORPORATIONS IN BLACK HAWK COUNTY, IOWA

Dotted lines indicate boundaries of sub-districts.
Nos. 1 and 2 = Independent City Districts of first class.
Nos. 3 and 4 = Independent City or Town Districts.
Nos. 5 to 11 = Consolidated Districts.
Nos. 12 to 18 = School Townships.
Nos. 19 to 62 = Rural Independent Districts.

Relation of Teacher to Administrative and Supervisory Officers

1. *To the School Board.*

Securing a Position.—One may apply for several positions at the same time. The uncertainty of election often makes this necessary. As soon as a position

has been accepted, other applications should be withdrawn and no further effort should be made to secure another position. A personal interview with the school board should always be sought when making application. It will prove more satisfactory to both board and teacher. If the application must be made in writing, it should consist of a short, clear-cut, well-written statement of the facts that concern a board when hiring a teacher. Age, training, and previous experience, if any, should be given. Any special qualifications that the teacher thinks she possesses for that particular position may be modestly mentioned. A recent photograph may be enclosed. References to responsible parties should be given instead of the general "to whom it may concern" type of recommendation. A personal letter to the school board from some one who can speak intelligently of the ability of the applicant is of value.

Contract.—A teacher should obtain a contract from the school board after she has accepted a position. It should be made in duplicate, and one copy filed with the president or secretary of the board. The contract should always specify the term of employment, the salary, and the mode of payment. Other items may well be mentioned in order to avoid misunderstandings. Such are: when and under what conditions vacations may be held; what holidays shall be observed; who shall provide for the janitor service; time lost due to closing of school on account of pupils' illness, bad roads, or bad weather. In some States some of these questions are answered by law or court decisions. In others they frequently lead to litigation. The teacher should never abandon her contract. An opportunity for promotion may present itself to a teacher and she may desire re-

lease from her contract. If so, she should state her case to the board, and ask them to give the matter consideration. If they feel that releasing her would prove detrimental to the school, then she should carry out the conditions of the contract. Any other course would be dishonorable.

Responsibility as to Equipment.—The teacher has a twofold relationship toward the board in the matter of equipment. First, it devolves upon her very largely to decide as to the kind and amount of equipment that the school authorities should provide. The teacher should have the courage to ask for needed supplies and equipment. On the other hand, she should only ask for those things which she knows she can and will use. Economy of expenditure should be considered as well as magnitude of results.

Second, the teacher, when she signs a contract and enters upon her duties, assumes a responsibility for the care of the school equipment. She is the paid representative of the school board, and, as such, it is her duty to watch with due care and diligence over the school equipment. A teacher may be successful in her method of instruction and yet fail miserably because she does not appreciate her responsibility in this matter. The teacher, then, should use the same watchfulness and strictness, both in the asking for and the care of equipment, that she would if she herself had to foot the bill.

Daily Register and Reports.—Teachers are required to make certain reports to the school board. Usually these reports are to be filed with the secretary or clerk of the board. The nature of the reports that are required varies in different States. The teacher should

learn from the county superintendent which reports are to be made to the school board. She should then make her reports at the appointed time. Care should be exercised in the making of the report. It should be complete and neat. A complete record of attendance, work covered, and grades earned, should be kept in every school and left for the successor. This register should be kept up to date and open to inspection by the county superintendent, the school board, or patrons, at all times.

2. *To the County Superintendent.*

Supervision.—No system of schools can run successfully without adequate supervision. The teacher may be ever so skillful and the equipment excellent, but still there must be some competent authority to unify and direct. The rural school especially should not be left without supervision. The rural teachers need and have a right to the help that comes from sympathetic oversight.

The county superintendent is the official in most States whose special function it is to oversee the work of the rural schools. The duties imposed upon this official are so numerous and the unit for organization is so large that little personal supervision is possible. Therefore, the superintendent must do his supervisory work in other ways.

Certification.—The State demands that a person, before entering upon the duties of teaching, must be legally authorized by the State to teach. The salary of the teacher is obtained through taxation. The public, therefore, through State laws, reserves the right to say what conditions as to scholarship, personality, and character must be met by the prospective teacher. It is the intent and purpose of these laws to exclude from the

schools, as teachers, immature, incompetent, or immoral persons.

The certificating of teachers is usually done through the office of county superintendent. In the earlier periods of our State histories, this work was done entirely by that official through a system of examinations. In recent years much of this authority has been delegated to the State Department of Public Instruction or to State boards. This has resulted in a more unified system of certification. The county superintendent is the official, however, through whom applications for certificates are made. Another recent development in certificating teachers is the growing tendency to abolish examinations and to substitute in lieu thereof special training and preparation for teaching.

Educational Meetings.—The county superintendent, as has been said, cannot do much by personal supervision. Teachers' meetings, therefore, are some of the most effective means that he has for giving assistance to his teachers. Most States provide by law for some form of professional teachers' meetings. Others are organized and conducted by the county superintendent according to the needs of the county. All such meetings should be attended by the teachers and used as a means for professional improvement. The help, personal acquaintance, and inspiration that are received at such meetings will greatly repay the teacher for the time and effort required. The interest and enthusiasm shown by the teachers at such meetings give the county superintendent a real index as to the professional spirit and value of the teacher.

Professional Reading.—In most States there are reading-circle organizations. The purpose of these or-

ganizations is to give teachers assistance and directions in professional reading. A teacher should read and study one or more good up to date professional books while she is teaching. The county superintendent should be consulted in regard to the selection of the best books. A professionally minded teacher in the course of a few years acquires a good working library. It is an inspiration to the county superintendent, when visiting a teacher, to find upon her desk several good professional books.

Co-operating with the County Superintendent.—Aggressive county superintendents depend very largely upon general campaigns for the improvement of their schools. Physical education programs, health programs, thrift campaigns, special efforts to improve the work in certain subjects, and other campaigns are conducted. To get results in these campaigns, the superintendent must have the whole-hearted and enthusiastic support and co-operation of the teachers. If a "Play Day" is planned for the county, every teacher should feel that she is an integral part of that plan. If she fails, and a few others do likewise, the entire plan is in danger of failure. The program, if worth while at all, is worth doing well in every school. The teacher should not question the desirability of the campaign. That decision is one of the specific functions of the supervising official.

Reports.—The teacher is required to make certain reports to the county superintendent. These reports are one of the means that the superintendent has of getting needed information concerning the school. The following items concerning the reports are especially stressed:

First. *Promptness.* To the prospective teacher this advice will seem commonplace. The experienced teacher

however, knows how fully the time is occupied with other duties, and how easy it is to say to herself: "I will make it out next Saturday." When Saturday comes other duties again take up the time, and before the teacher realizes it she forgets to send it in at all. If your county superintendent asks for a report at the close of the first day of school, send it at the close of that day. Find out before school opens what reports are required, and get the necessary blanks.

Second. *Completeness.* An examination of the reports received by the county superintendent's office will show that a teacher will even fail to indicate the name of the school or to sign her own name. If she does not know how to make out a term report, she should not be backward in consulting her county superintendent. Not to know how to make the report is not a disgrace, but it is little less to send in to the county superintendent one that is incomplete.

Third. *Neatness.* These reports are placed on file in the office of the superintendent for future inspection and reference. Therefore, to send in reports neat and attractive in appearance should be of personal interest to the teacher.

3. *To the State Superintendent.*

The State superintendent is an important factor in rural school supervision. Through his influence courses of study have been adopted and the requirements for teachers shaped and unified. Bulletins on rural school improvement are published. Programs for special days and other helpful material are issued. The teacher should avail herself of all such helps and should endeavor to carry out in her own school the plans that the superintendent makes for the State as a whole.

QUESTIONS

1. How is the county superintendent elected in your State?
2. Is this method desirable? If not, why not?
3. What means does a county superintendent have of estimating the value of a teacher?
4. Can certificates be renewed without examination in your State? If so, upon what basis?
5. What are some of the best professional magazines for rural school teachers?
6. What books are now on your State reading circle list?

PROBLEMS

1. Compare the taxable valuation per teacher in a typical consolidated school district with that in an average rural one-teacher district.
2. Give arguments for and against the county unit plan or organization.
3. Explain fully how the money for the maintenance of public schools is derived.
4. Name the different kinds of teachers' certificates issued in your State.
5. Give arguments for abolishing the small independent rural school corporations.

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4. Hollister: *The Administration of Education in a Democracy*, Chapters IV and VII.

CHAPTER V

ATTENDANCE RECORDS AND REPORTS

SECTION I

ATTENDANCE

Schools are maintained to educate children. This function cannot be performed unless the children present themselves for instruction every day that the school is in session. Regularity of attendance is, therefore, very essential to the success of any school.

Standpoint of Citizenship.—Punctuality and regularity in attending to any set task are virtues of the greatest merit and importance. Children who receive such training in school will be better citizens. The school is maintained for the purpose of placing the highest ideals of citizenship before the child. But it is possible that the very institution that is maintained for this purpose may be developing poor citizens.

When the child is allowed to be tardy and absent at any time, and nothing is done to stop it, his citizen training will be negative: first, because he does not form the habit of being punctual, which is essential to good citizenship, and second, because school attendance increases the possibility for citizenship training and general uplift for those in attendance. It is held now that the best citizen is the one who receives at least the equivalent of an eighth-grade education. Investigations have revealed that America is a nation of sixth-graders. This is a sad comment on our American edu-

cational system. Individuals who have not taken advantage of the schools of the nation not only have handicapped themselves in the struggle for a living, but have lowered the average standard of efficiency for the nation.

Standpoint of the Taxpayer.—The problem of school attendance is important from the economic standpoint. The careful business man checks his investment against his income. If there is a reasonable profit, he is satisfied. School attendance and the sum total of all the ideals that children receive while attending are the income. Teachers' salaries, supplies, equipment, and fuel are the investment. The taxpayer is the investor. The expense of the school will be the same even if half of the children stay at home. That is, the taxpayer pays for the education of *all* the children of school age. But when some of the children are absent, and are, therefore, receiving no benefit from the school, the taxpayers lose on their investment in proportion to the number of children who are absent.

The following illustrations will help make this point clear. In computing attendance the percentage of attendance gives an accurate means of comparison. The average percentage of attendance in the one-teacher rural schools in a certain county was 75%. The highest was 95%, and the lowest 60%. Assuming that the teacher in each case was receiving $100 per month, let us consider the taxpayers' loss. In the case of the highest $5 per month was lost, of the average for the county $25, and of the lowest $40. Statistics from all over the United States show that the average daily attendance in all the public schools, including village, rural, and town schools, is less than 75% of the number enrolled.

Standpoint of Teacher.—Irregular attendance has been found by teachers to be one of the most serious hindrances to the teaching of the school. Nothing is more discouraging to the teacher than to have a class nicely organized and thoroughly interested, and then have one or two pupils drop out for a day or two at a time. Not only the pupils who drop out lose much, but the whole class is handicapped. A double effort must be put forth by the teacher to get those pupils back into the proper attitude when they return. It means extra hours after school, or at odd times during the day. Such a condition may cause the unfortunate pupils to so lose interest that they will drop out of school and never return.

Some of the most common effects on pupils, teacher, and the school itself can be summed up as follows:

(*a*) Lack of interest on the part of pupils concerned.
(*b*) Failures and lack of promotion.
(*c*) Dropping out of school permanently.
(*d*) The giving of extra time on the part of the teacher.
(*e*) Retarding other pupils.

Reasons for Irregularities

School Environment.—Unattractive school buildings and grounds have much to do with poor attendance. The buildings may not be painted. Fences are down. Maps, desks, and equipment are out of order; in fact, everything indicates no interest. Uncomfortable schoolrooms never attract children. Poor seating, lighting, and ventilation add much to their discomfort. Enthusiasm and spirit seem to be in proportion to the surroundings.

Dislike for Teacher and School Work.—Many times misunderstandings occur between the teacher and pupil.

There are so many ways in which this may happen. This in itself is sufficient reason for many children to think of excuses for non-attendance. If many of the good qualities discussed in the chapter on "The Teacher" are found wanting, then the children must be driven to school every morning. They will not attend, because they know that they will not be in the presence of an inspiring teacher. Teachers oftentimes do not motivate their work. Old methods are applied in the same old way, and children cannot become interested. The course of study has until recently centered around the supervisor or the pedagogue and not around the child. The child has been required to "take" certain subjects as he would take medicine. Too often neither his present interest nor the world outside, that he must soon enter, has been considered. No one can blame a child for not wishing to attend school under such conditions.

Home Work and Uninterested Parents.—Children are kept out of school by the parents for various reasons. Frequently the reason is given that they are needed for work at home. While teachers should not object to pupils being absent for matters of real importance, they should bear in mind that the chief business of the child is attendance at school. Many parents would send their children regularly if they understood just what it meant to keep them out. A certain mother protested vigorously when her little daughter was not promoted to the next grade. The little girl had been absent a total of twenty days during the year, but never for more than one day at a time. When this fact was presented to the mother she admitted that it had been her own fault. The next year her daughter had a perfect record of attendance.

There are some parents who would sacrifice the future happiness of their children for a few paltry dollars. Such parents mortgage their children's success. The compulsory attendance law should be applied with all its power to such parents.

How to Improve Attendance.—*Make School Work Interesting.*—Interest is the keynote of success in the schoolroom. The teacher who spends time and energy in planning an interesting program never has to worry about attendance. This program includes such items as the following: (1) interesting and varying opening exercises; (2) well planned classwork; (3) properly supervised intermissions; (4) student organizations. Opening exercises give the teacher an opportunity to bring many interesting topics before the school. Nothing is more deadening than to have the same type of opening exercises every morning. The teacher must make plans for this important period, because if the boys and girls realize that something "new" is sure to happen, they will make an effort not only to be there but be on time. Patriotic exercises, current events, dramatizations, dialogues, reports, spelling and arithmetic contests, picture study, and many other worth while activities might be used which would attract every child and cause him to have a desire to be in school.

The product that means most in the business of teaching is the output of the classroom. This is made up of interest, enthusiasm, and a desire for more knowledge. The teacher who thoughtfully plans her daily recitations, striving to bring in new interesting material each day, will not have much trouble about poor attendance. The normal pupil who sits at the feet of a good teacher is blessed. She leads him into the foundation material

for future ideals, by superior teaching, motivation, correlation, and practical illustration. In geography, field trips are taken; samples of various rocks are brought to class by the teacher; pictures of various countries showing the customs of the people are brought to the class. The teacher is leading the anxious learner on through interesting materials. Likewise in every subject there will be something that the teacher can do to strengthen the desire to know more about the topic in hand. If the teacher discovers a lack of interest in any subject, it would be well for her to look at herself and her methods before criticising any one else.

In the chapters on "Physical Education" much emphasis is placed upon the supervision of play on the playground and in the schoolroom. This emphasis is given largely because a supervised play period is all conducive to a great deal of interest and enthusiasm. The teacher will manage to keep every one "busy" playing. Wholesome contest games increase school spirit. The children look forward with a good deal of pleasure to intermissions. They will make every effort to be present in order to play on the "team." Naturally if the right spirit prevails upon the playground that same spirit will continue to prevail in the schoolroom. The play period is one of the social-training periods that boys and girls enjoy while on the school ground. Wholesome social life which gives real enjoyment during intermissions will increase the interest in school attendance. Children enjoy association together in clubs and literary societies. Holding office, voting, and taking part in regular programs wholly managed by the pupils themselves add interest to school work. The teacher can well afford to formulate bird clubs, poultry clubs, and other organiza-

tions for the purpose of gaining valuable information and experience. Children will be anxious to attend a school in which they have some vital interest and where they are copartners with the teacher.

Organize a Community Center or a Parent-Teacher Association.—In chapter III emphasis is placed upon the community center. The organization of a parent-teacher association, with the school as the center of interest, will do much toward cementing all of the community interests. Parents will have such a feeling of partnership that they will not keep their children out of school. Teachers who are active in these organizations learn to know the parents so well that they can discuss attendance and its effect on scholarship and progress in school. Many parents do not appreciate what a few days' absence may mean to their child. When they are shown the results in a tactful, kind way much good is done.

Formulate Attendance Contests.—Better attendance has been accomplished by working out a race between different classes in the school. This method, of course, is not a natural means of securing the desired end. Such contests may secure the desired end without burdening any one. These good-natured races can be staged within the same school, or two teachers who wish to arouse a little spirit of contest between their schools could plan such a race for a period of two months or a term.

Awards for Perfect Attendance.—The giving of simple awards for perfect attendance is a common practice. These awards usually consist of a certificate, diploma, or pin. They are given not because of their intrinsic value but in recognition of a faithful effort for regular attend-

ance on the part of the pupil. Usually the awards are given by the county superintendent. Various systems are in use, and the teacher should communicate with her superintendent as to the practice in that county. If no awards are furnished from the office of the county superintendent, she can purchase them from any school supply house.

Personal Inquiry.—Many teachers maintain a high average daily attendance for their school by a close "follow up" system with the parents. If a pupil is absent for a day the teacher in the evening either makes a personal call at that home or inquires of the mother by telephone if the child is ill. Both the parents and the child will be pleased to know that the teacher thinks enough of them to really miss the child when absent, and will make an effort to assist her in keeping up her attendance.

Compulsory Attendance.—After all other means have been tried, compulsion is the only one left. Nearly every State in the Union has resorted to definite laws on compulsory attendance. These are laws which compel children of certain ages to attend school for a certain number of weeks during the school year. While in attendance at the school, they are required to take certain branches that will prepare them for citizenship. There are a number of exemptions that may be applied in case a child really cannot attend school. The difficulty is that far too many parents are anxious to make use of any point that permits them to keep their children out of school. The penalty for such actions in some States is very heavy, both for parents and school authorities who may neglect their duties along this particular line.

All teachers of the public schools and all school officers are responsible for the enforcement of these laws. In most States the teacher reports the truant child to the secretary of the school board, who in turn reports the matter to the president of the school corporation, who must take some action. This matter of responsibility is not the same in all States. The teacher should make inquiry of her county superintendent or the president of her board for details that she does not understand.

The following outline is suggested for a more careful study of the compulsory attendance law in the reader's home State:

Compulsory School Law

1. Time requirement.
2. Age limit.
3. Kind of instruction.
4. Exemptions:
   (a) How many? Why?
   (b) Dangers.
5. Penalty for violation.
6. Enforcement.
7. The teacher's part.
8. Weaknesses.

Section II

RECORDS AND REPORTS

Large industries keep very careful records of all business transactions. They do this in order to compare one year's business with another. Factories have been known to keep very close account of the cost of every

part of a manufactured machine, even to the cost of a small bolt. All this is done to make it possible for a large concern to watch all details and to manufacture a satisfactory article with the least possible expense, and to sell it at a fair profit. Schools should also be placed upon a business basis. Each school should keep accurate and complete records. The people who pay for the schools have a right to know what results they are getting from their money. Taxpayers should know the enumeration of the district, the number enrolled in the schools, and the percentage of attendance. Such reports wisely made from records kept by good teachers constitute the business phase of the school. Teachers need to understand that they have a very important part in this phase of the school business. If one teacher fails to keep accurate records, her reports will necessarily be incorrect. Her neglect means, in a measure, failure for the whole system of school records and reports, county, State, and nation.

Function of Records and Reports.—The primary function of records and reports as indicated above is to convey accurate information to school boards and patrons. The county superintendent needs complete and accurate reports in order to give the best supervision. He can assist in program-building, in securing proper supplies, and in checking up on localities where attendance is poor if he has complete reports. He makes all necessary State reports from those sent in by his teachers. Complete records and reports are very essential to the success of the next teacher. She cannot properly classify her pupils without adequate reports. Much of the poor classification found in rural schools is caused by poorly kept records. Children are too often

placed in classes in which they claim membership simply because no records are left. The teacher is compelled to take the pupil's word for the situation and hope for the best. Such a condition should not exist in an institution that is attempting to handle the best product of America—boys and girls.

Records to be Kept.—*The School Register.*—The school register is a complete and permanent record showing:

(1) Names and ages of pupils.

(2) Record of attendance for each pupil.

(3) The grades earned in various subjects by the pupils during the term.

(4) Where classes began work at the beginning of the term and where they quit at the close.

(5) Where each class should take up work for the new term.

(6) Remarks and recommendations on the work of each individual pupil.

(7) Number of classes and number of pupils in each class.

(8) Remarks on the work of each class.

(9) Complete copy of daily program of study and recitation.

(10) Names and authors of text-books used.

(11) Needs in apparatus and books.

The school register should be secured from the president or secretary of the school board, and carefully studied for several days before school begins in order that the teacher may properly organize and classify the school. From this record, a tentative program should be made. This register, if properly kept by the former teacher, will be one of the greatest helps in getting a school well organized.

How to Make Reports.—In chapter IV suggestions were made regarding neatness, promptness, and accuracy in making reports. The first two ought to be easy for any enterprising teacher, but the last causes a great amount of difficulty. County superintendents declare that nearly all the reports that they receive from beginning teachers need correcting before they can be used in making final county reports. Teachers make errors in finding the percentage of attendance, the average attendance, and the average cost of tuition.

The following paragraphs are written to help teachers in this very important matter.

In practically all schools teachers are required to make term reports to the school board and the county superintendent. Some county superintendents require reports at different times during the year, such as a post-card notification of the acceptance of a school and the salary to be paid. This is sent in before school opens. A second post-card report is sent at the close of the first day, giving enrollment and needed supplies. A third report, a little more extensive, goes in at the close of the first week. This gives the classification of the school and the daily program. The fourth report is the term report mentioned above. There is no uniformity as to form or number of reports required in the various States, but since term reports are in common use the following is given for careful study:

The Keeping of the Attendance Record.—Many different plans are used by authors of school registers for marking absence, tardiness, and school entrance in the records. In some cases crosses are used for a whole day's absence. In others, dots in each half-day's space indicate absence for that half day. Below a plan in

common use is suggested. Reference to the first pages of any register in use will give all information necessary:

"E" indicates that a pupil entered school on that day. A dot indicates absence. Dots in both the upper and lower spaces indicate absence for both forenoon and afternoon. "t" indicates that the pupil was tardy. When a pupil is absent at the opening of school, either in the forenoon or afternoon, a dot is placed in the proper place after his name. If he comes in later, the dot is changed to "t", indicating that he is tardy.

When a pupil is absent for three consecutive days he is dropped from school. This is indicated by a "D" written in the proper place. He must not then be counted absent, for he does not belong to school until he enters again.

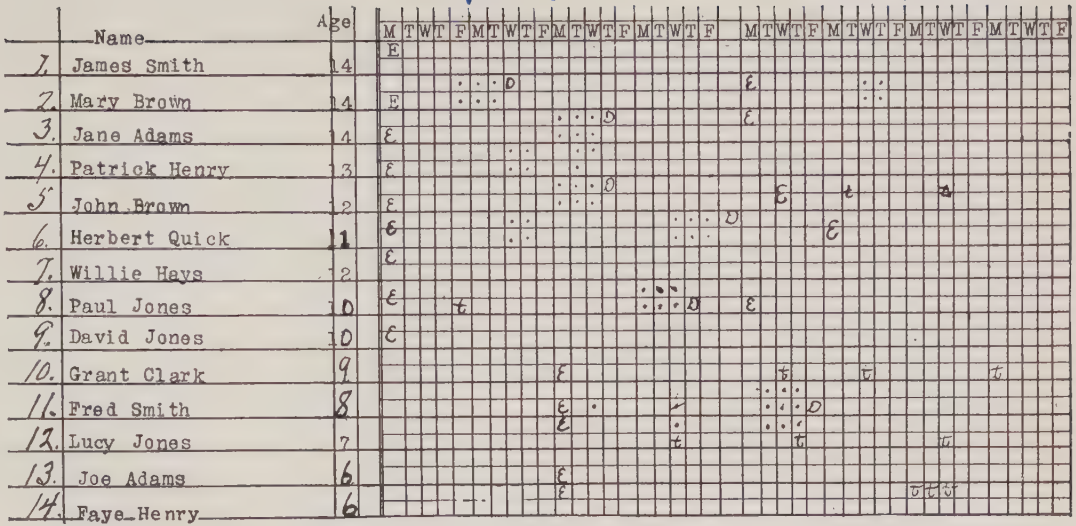
The diagram on page 105 is a sample of the record of attendance of a typical one-teacher rural school.

With the above two months record it is suggested that the student work out the following term report. We will assume that the teacher receives $100 per month.

	BOYS	GIRLS	TOTAL
Total number of pupils enrolled			
Average number belonging			
Total number of days' attendance			
Average daily attendance			
Total number of days absent			
Total number cases of tardiness			
Number neither absent nor tardy			
Total number of days taught			
Amount paid teacher per month			
Average cost of tuition per month			
Total days' non-membership			
Percentage of attendance			

How to find:

1. *Total number of days taught* is found by adding all the days that school was taught, including days for which pay was to have been received.


Name
Age
M T W T F M T W T F M T W T F M T W T F M T W T F M T W T F M T W T F M T W T F
1. James Smith 14
2. Mary Brown 14
3. Jane Adams 14
4. Patrick Henry 13
5. John Brown 12
6. Herbert Quick 11
7. Willie Hays 12
8. Paul Jones 10
9. David Jones 10
10. Grant Clark 9
11. Fred Smith 8
12. Lucy Jones 7
13. Joe Adams 6
14. Faye Henry 6

RECORD OF ATTENDANCE OF A TYPICAL ONE-TEACHER RURAL SCHOOL

2. *Average number belonging* is found by dividing the sum of the number belonging for each day by the number of days school has been taught.

3. *Total number of days' attendance* is found by adding up all days attended by all pupils.

4. *Total Absence.*—In most States a pupil who is out of school three consecutive days after enrolling is regarded as not belonging to the school and is dropped from the roll. In some States, however, five consecutive days are allowed. If he returns later, he is marked as entering. The number of days between the time of his being dropped from the roll until he enters again is known as days of non-membership. If the pupil is out of school three consecutive days or less, he is absent during that time. Therefore, total absence can be found by counting up all days absent where the child in question has been absent three days or less.

5. *Total days of non-membership* are found by making a total of all days that any child was not a member after having been dropped from the roll.

6. *Average daily attendance* is found by dividing the total number of days attended by all pupils by the number of days school has been taught.

7. *Percentage of attendance* is found by adding together the total attendance in days and the total absence in days, and dividing the total attendance in days by this sum.

8. *Average cost of tuition* is found by dividing the amount paid the teacher per month by the average daily attendance for the term.

Record of Standing.—Every register should contain a page upon which are recorded the final grades for the term. The grade earned by each pupil in each subject

SYLLABUS OF CLASSES

Classes by Yrs. in Course of Study	Pupils in Each Class This Term (By Number) **SUBJECT**	Name and Author of Text Used and Books	Pages Studied This Term		Teacher Recommends that the following Pupils Constitute each Class Next Term (By Number)
			From	To	
	READING	Slacks			
8	1, 2, 3, 4	8th Reader	90	205	Finished and to be dropped
6	5, 6, 7,	6th "	40	130	Continue
4,5	8, 9, 10	4th "	1	75	Continue
3	11	3rd "	1	68	Review
2	12	2nd "	1	84	Combine with 11
1	13, 14	1st "	1	75	Continue

that was pursued during the term should be given. Care should be exercised by the teacher in the final determination of these grades. If they are correctly and accurately given it will greatly assist the next teacher in the organization of the school.

Classification Record.—The page which contains the record of the classification of the pupils is of very great importance to the succeeding teacher. The syllabus of classes should give the new teacher just the information that is needed in planning for the first day's work.

That portion of the page dealing with the subject of reading is given on page 107. Other subjects in the course of study should be treated in the same manner. The numbers for the pupils are taken from the record of daily attendance previously given in this chapter.

Other Features.—Several other items of information should be included in a complete school register. A copy of the daily program of study and recitation should be given in full. A special report from the teacher to her successor should include suggestions and recommendations as to promotions of individual pupils or classes. Needs for apparatus, library books, and materials may be mentioned. A copy of the teacher's term report to the school authorities should be recorded.

Special Records and Reports.—*Report to Parents.*—The teacher should regularly make a report of the pupils' work to the parents. In many counties the county superintendent furnishes cards for that purpose. A special form for the county may have been devised. The teacher should consult the county superintendent as to the plan followed in that county. If no cards are furnished the teacher should ask the school board to get some. The report-card should be sent to the parents

once every four or six weeks. The important items to be included in the report are: (*a*) number of days attended; (*b*) number of times tardy; (*c*) deportment; (*d*) attitude toward school work; (*e*) character of work done in each subject during the period. The report should be simple and easily read. A place for the parents' signature should be indicated.

Library Record.—A good library is one of the best aids to a school. There are several reasons why a good record of the library books should be kept. First, the teacher needs to know just what books she has that can be used for reference and supplemental work in the several subjects. Second, the school board needs a record of the library books so that it may intelligently add to the library. Third, the county superintendent needs the information so that he can make proper recommendations to the board.

Health Record.—A record of the physical examinations of each pupil may well be kept. Such a record is of much value to a new teacher. Cases of poor eyes, poor hearing, and a tendency to undernourishment would then be a matter of record. The following simple record is suggested.

Name (*Jack Fuller*).
Born in (*Hennepin Co., Minn.*), on (*Jan.* 16, 1910).
School (*No.* 5).
Date of 1st examination in school (*Sept.* 5, 1924).....
" 2d examination in school.....
" 3d examination in school.....
" 4th examination in school.....
" 5th examination in school.....
" 6th examination in school.....
" 7th examination in school.....
" 8th examination in school.....

YEAR IN SCHOOL	1ST YR.	2D YR.	3D YR.	4TH YR.	5TH YR.	6TH YR.	7TH YR.	8TH YR.
1. Age (years)	5							
2. Def. teeth	N							
3. Def. hearing	Y							
4. Def. eyesight	N							
5. Adenoids	Y							
6. Diseased tonsils	Y							
7. Nutrition	G							
8. Height (inches)	45							
9. Weight (pounds)	48							
10. Nervous	N							
11. Posture	B							

Def.=Defective. G=Good. Y=Yes. B=Bad. N=No.

Remarks

This child has had the following diseases at the age indicated below:

DISEASE	AGE	DISEASE	AGE
1.		7.	
2.		8.	
3.		9.	
4.		10.	
5.		11.	
6.		12.	

QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the relation of elementary school attendance to a more efficient democracy.
2. From your observation as a pupil or as a teacher in a rural school what were the causes of poor attendance?
3. What is the compulsory attendance law in your State? Work it out from the outline given on page 100 of this chapter. Is it enforced? Why?
4. What methods are being employed in your State or county to improve attendance?
5. Make a list of good excuses for keeping children out of school.

6. What are the following items and how are they secured? How are they used in school affairs?
   (*a*) School census.
   (*b*) Enumeration.
   (*c*) School enrollment.
7. (*a*) What is the "school age" in your State?
   (*b*) What means of publicity could the teacher employ to let people know about school attendance?
8. Examine a term report. There are many items for which the teacher is responsible in this report. Which ones are the most important? Why?
9. What arguments can you give to prove that the school register should be kept accurately and completely? When would you consider that the register used in your school was complete and ready to be turned over to the secretary of your school board?
10. What are the characteristics of a good report-card to be sent to the parents? Make a sample.

PROBLEMS

1. Ask the county superintendent of your county for several old term reports. Check the following to see if errors have been made:
   (1) Percentage of attendance.
   (2) Average daily attendance.
   (3) Average cost of tuition.
2. Work out the economic loss to the taxpayer for at least five reports. Do this by finding the ratio of the average daily attendance to the enumeration.
3. Compute the cost per pupil for each day's actual attendance on one or two of these reports.
4. Make a list of conditions that you would expect to discover in a truancy case.
5. Work out an imaginary attendance record for a two months period. Use the system suggested in the chapter.
6. Work out the eight problems suggested on pages 104 and 106.

7. Prove that a high percentage of attendance is more important than a large enrollment.
8. How can the teachers help the county superintendent to increase the daily attendance?

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CHAPTER VI

SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS

Statement of Problem.—Teachers and patrons should recognize the important part that physical environment and equipment play in the physical, mental, and moral development of boys and girls. The human soul absorbs its environment. It draws inspiration from its surroundings. The schoolhouse and its setting should be an expression of the public spirit and civic pride of the community. It should measure the community interest and progress in education.

Progress and Ideals.—One of the outstanding features in American education has been the progress made in schoolhouse construction and sanitation. No teacher, no community, need to be ignorant to-day with reference to ideals and practical accomplishments in school buildings and equipment. In spite of this fact, a large number of rural children must spend a large portion of their waking hours in schoolhouses of pioneer days that tend to undermine health and lower the efficiency of both pupil and teacher. A study of educational needs and achievements from the standpoint of school architecture should be a part of the teacher's professional preparation. Not only should she have this knowledge, but she should also comprehend her responsibility and duty in developing a public sentiment that will desire and be satisfied only with the best.

Good equipment is as necessary for the teacher as good tools and machinery are necessary for the farmer.

A good workman will *insist* on good tools. One can sometimes judge a teacher by the conditions with which she is satisfied. Some people are to be pitied not so much for what they do not have as for what they do not miss. The teacher has a twofold problem with reference to buildings and equipment: first, make the best use of her present situation, and second, plan for new or improved conditions.

These two factors must go hand in hand. Some things suggested may seem impracticable and impossible. However, we mention only those things that a number of communities and teachers have found possible. A teacher must have a vision. "Low aim is crime." Progress is dependent upon fundamental changes, and while these take root and grow the teacher must make the best of conditions as she finds them. To this end, practical suggestions for improvement are mentioned.

Grounds.—The modern rural school, with its program of play, nature study, physical training, and athletics, requires an adequate site. The lot should be oblong in shape. The building should be set well back from the road, and the grounds in front should have landscape treatment, with walks, trees, and shrubbery. The playground should be located in the rear of the building. Where the school is large, the primary pupils should have a playground of their own at the side of the building. The teacher, however, is to make the best use of the land already provided. The ground should be level. It should be free from weeds, stones, bricks, sticks, and ashes. As soon as the teacher has established herself in the community, and her regular school work is under way, she should plan a clean-up day. Parents should be given an opportunity to co-operate.

Be sure that no ash pile is allowed to accumulate. Provide a special box for the ashes, or use them in building walks or for filling. A good grass lawn should be built up. An attempt should be made to beautify the school grounds, by planting trees, shrubs, and flowers, following some recommended plan. Many States publish special bulletins on the subject. It is best to follow suggestions made for your own State as far as possible. Native trees and shrubs are more easily obtained, and will grow if given a chance. Pupils should watch plants grow and develop with increasing interest. Arbor day could be used for a real practical aesthetic lesson on every school ground.

Do not forget that nurture as well as planting is necessary. Trees and flowers will grow if properly planted and given constant care. They should get plenty of water, and the ground should be cultivated frequently the first year. Sufficient interest and pride should be developed so that the children will see that their school grounds are cared for also during vacations. The school yard and all that grows upon it can be a silent teacher. There are sermons that only trees can preach, and a love for flowers that makes discipline and law enforcement easier.

A good fence looks well and is an essential help in keeping the schoolhouse grounds in proper condition. The fence may be made both ornamental and useful. Very few school grounds have a fence. Perhaps because the patrons have not been led to see this need. There are a few board fences, but the largest number are made of woven wire. It would be a fine project in manual training to keep the fence in good repair, such as straight corners, tight wires, and gates properly hung.

Since a well-kept school ground is a good advertisement for the community, then a good fence should prove a paying investment.

The Schoolhouse.—The rural school buildings in most States are either new and modern or the old "box-car" type of pioneer days. (See page 117.) There is no more excuse for old, inadequate, out-of-date buildings than there is for the old reaper or ox-cart.

What is an up-to-date rural school building? A plant adequate to its task and appropriate to its purpose.

In outward appearance the one-room schoolhouse should be one of beauty and dignity. (See frontispiece.) It should be carefully planned and carefully built. The outside door should open into a hall. From this hall there should be a door leading to a boys' cloak-room and one leading to the girls' cloak-room. These cloak-rooms should be so built that the teacher can supervise them. A dark, out of the way cloak-room is not conducive to good discipline. The main building should have a twelve-foot ceiling. The main schoolroom should provide eighteen square feet of floor space per pupil. There should be a special room for the library and supplies. Indoor toilets should be placed on the first floor. The building should stand on a high foundation, making possible a light and dry basement. Besides the regular furnace-room there should be a room for domestic science and the school lunch, a room for boys in manual training, a large room that could be used for a play-room and a meeting-room for community entertainments. It is recommended that a coal-room be built outside the main basement. The building should, of course, be properly lighted, heated, and ventilated. In many places the old building might be remodelled and

a basement provided so as to meet the requirements above. Study the following floor plan. The working out of a model school building and grounds will make a splendid class project. A number of school architects and superintendents are coming to favor a building

A BOX-CAR TYPE OF SCHOOL

without a basement. This plan has many points in its favor, and merits careful study.

The fundamental problem for the teacher in any school, but especially in a modern up-to-date schoolhouse, is to see that the building is kept up and all the good features utilized. So many buildings tell a sad story of neglect and procrastination. To have and not to use, whether through ignorance or carelessness, is evidence of serious incompetency. Care for public

property is good training in citizenship. Let your school property be an object lesson in this respect.

The Old Type Building.—Unfortunately, this modern rural school building is the exception, not the rule. Reasons for this backwardness are natural, but not always justifiable. The more important factors are:

(1) A decreasing school enrollment.

(2) Easier to repair the old building.

(3) Lack of educational leadership and therefore no public sentiment for better things.

(4) Many leading farmers who now have no children in the school.

(5) A growing conviction that the one-teacher school is soon to be replaced by the consolidated type.

(6) Too many "suit-case" teachers, whose real interest is not in the country school.

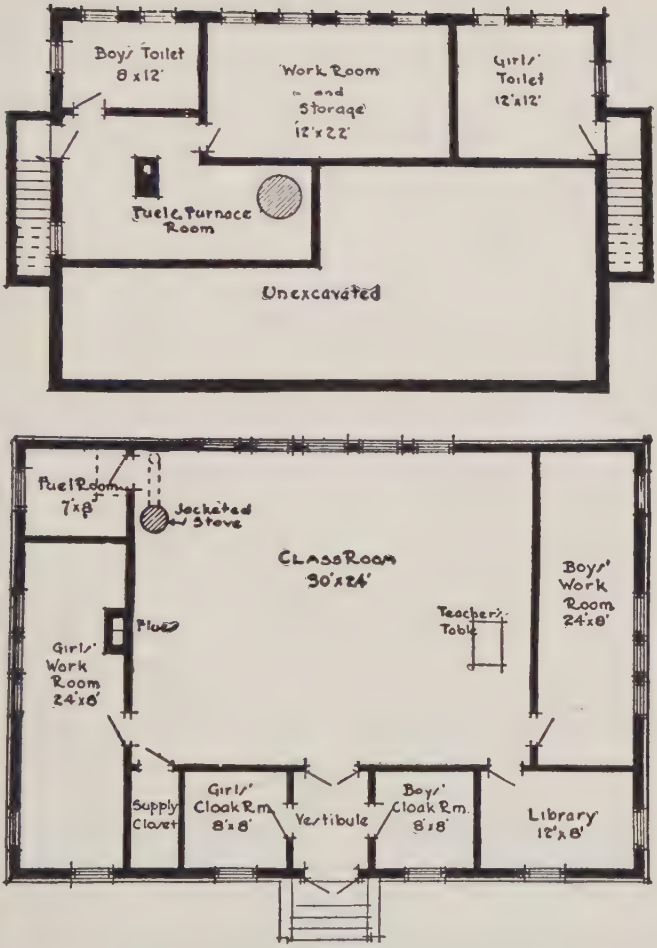
(7) The large number who stay but one year in the same district.

(8) Tenantry.

(9) Directors and patrons do not realize the value of the new building over the old.

(10) A financial depression and unrest among farmers in some communities.

In view of the fact that so many teachers will have to work in "the old schoolhouse," it is important that they know what to do under those circumstances. If the old building is almost hopeless and a decided menace to health, and especially if consolidation seems somewhat remote, the teacher should seek to obtain only the most urgent repairs and start a definite campaign for a new building. The people should understand, of course, that a new building may put off consolidation for a time, but will not be a permanent substitute for it. In time, natural evolution must have its way.



BASEMENT AND FLOOR PLAN FOR MODERN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL

The Old Building Made Usable.—If the old building must be used for a few years, what can be done with it? Make it just as comfortable for the children and as conducive to good school work as possible. Here are a few practical suggestions:

(*a*) For the teacher:

1. Secure window boards for ventilation of schoolroom.

2. See that air in room is properly humidified, especially during winter. This can be done by placing a pan or pail of water on the stove.

3. Interest the school board in placing a jacket around the stove that the room may be heated properly.

4. Purchase a jar with faucet and cover for drinking-water.

5. Fit up a cozy corner with looking-glass, wash dish, individual combs, drinking-cups, and towels.

6. Have the manual training class build a shelf for dinner pails and a rack for overshoes and rubbers.

7. Secure new adjustable window shades.

8. Remove stove from the center of the room and place it in the corner with a jacket around it.

9. Have seats placed properly as indicated on pages 129–131.

10. Provide a mat for exhibiting work.

Many of the points suggested the teacher cannot secure without money. If the school board says that it cannot furnish the money, the teacher may need to give an entertainment or social for that purpose. The teacher will need to interest the community in helping to do many of these things. This can be done during a general clean-up campaign.

(*b*) For the school board:

1. If the building is in fair condition, it can be raised and a good foundation and basement put in. This will give more room and a satisfactory system of heat and ventilation.

2. Put a good tight foundation under the building. The directors should see that saving in fuel alone will pay for this improvement.

3. A new hardwood floor can be laid on top of the old one.

4. A chimney of adequate size can be built, and an adequate heating and ventilating plant installed.

5. A good coat of paint both inside and outside will help to make the building attractive and usable. A pleasing color scheme is a fine disciplinarian. It pays to paint.

6. In many old buildings, the windows and doors are out of repair. In many cases the windows should be rearranged and new ones added.

7. Many old buildings need a separate cloak-room for boys and girls.

8. A good porch or vestibule will sometimes do a great deal to make an old building more serviceable.

9. Build a fuel-room at the rear of the building.

The teacher must use her own judgment in deciding the improvement most needed and the one to ask for first. To figure the necessary lumber and other materials needed should make a very interesting project for a class in arithmetic.

The interest and co-operation of the pupils are necessary in order to get much needed repairs and improvement. Public sentiment and pride need to be developed. The teacher must have a good stock of tact, persistence, and resourcefulness in order to get action.

The teacher should remember, of course, that she is looked upon as an outsider. Her task will be to get the people in the community to take the initiative. The taxpayer should realize the importance of good buildings and equipment from the standpoint of morality, health, mental achievement, discipline, and citizenship. The people should see that they are losing money by not having these material things. "There is a withholding that leadeth to poverty." A condition that makes a $100 teacher only 50% efficient and makes children lose much valuable time shows poor business sense. The State should help by encouraging some communities and compelling others to do the right thing. Do not forget that in the school of to-day is the State of to-morrow.

Heat and Ventilation.—This is a problem that the teacher must thoroughly understand. Practically all new buildings are properly equipped in this respect. The teacher's problem is that of understanding the system and operating it successfully. Study the printed instructions that come with the plant. The general principle of ventilation should be understood. Country schools have what is known as the gravity system. Large schools can have a fan and force the air into the rooms. The gravity system depends upon currents of air set in motion by means of heat. There must be a fresh-air intake and a foul-air outlet.

In a hot-air furnace, the air from the outside is conducted through a large pipe or duct to an enclosure around the firebox. The air, when heated, passes up through other ducts and enters the room at a point about eight feet above the floor. The foul and cold air is drawn out through a duct at the floor on the same wall

as the inlet. The air must now make a complete circuit of the room before it is discharged. The teacher should learn to operate the furnace and see that the air ducts are kept open. If the furnace does not properly heat and ventilate the building it will be due to one or more of the following causes:

(1) Poor circulation of air.

(2) Chimney full of soot.

(3) Improper installation.

(4) Furnace too small for the building, or an improperly built chimney.

(5) Dampers in the pipes not operated properly.

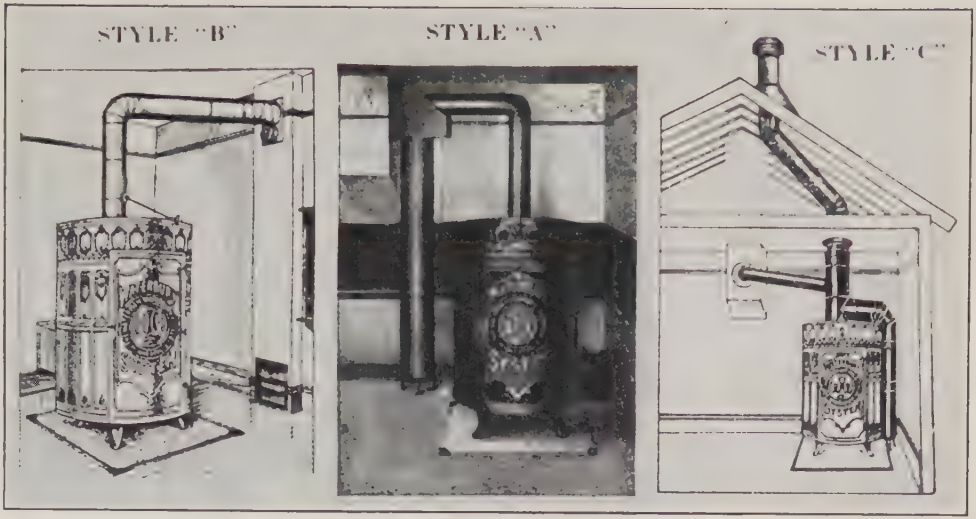
(6) Air too dry.

Many furnaces, however, are not installed as stated above. A large number have registers in the floors for both incoming and outgoing air. It takes no imagination to see that these floor registers are nothing but dust and dirt catchers and that the system rotates dust-laden air. The teacher should prevent children from standing and scraping their feet on the register, and keep the air duct as clean as possible. Some systems have inadequate fresh-air intakes and recirculate the air in the building. There are even a few buildings with foul-air register near the ceiling. This system just wastes heat. Some have the foul-air register on the opposite wall from the fresh-air register. The best way to remove foul air is by the use of a double-flue chimney, or by means of a steel jacket inside the chimney. In the first plan the chimney is made with two compartments, one for smoke, the other for foul air, with a register in the floor opening into the schoolroom. The compartments are separated by a wall made of one thickness of brick. When a fire is built the heated

smoke in the smoke compartment heats the brick, and in turn the foul-air chamber is heated. Currents of air rise in the foul-air chamber, which tends to draw foul air through the register. The second calls for a steel flue on the inside of the chimney. Not a few room-heaters have the fresh-air duct open under the stove. This is not satisfactory, as it takes too long for the air to be heated and circulation started. This can be remedied by bringing the fresh-air duct through the wall and the jacket at a height where the cold air will strike the hottest part of the stove. (See page 125.) Books and bulletins that go into detail on this subject should be studied. See list of references at the end of this chapter.

Room-Heater.—Many new buildings are heated and ventilated by means of a jacketed stove in the schoolroom. This system has some advantages over the furnace. It is easier to operate and more accessible, and for that reason not so easily neglected by the teachers. The stove and chimney should be placed in the same end of the room. The fresh-air intake must be kept open all day. There should be a register at the floor leading into the foul-air duct. The so-called patented system provides for the mixing of smoke and foul air. In this case the foul-air duct should come down to about six inches from the floor. (See illustration.)

All heating plants require intelligent operation and watchfulness. The writer has visited a large number of schools where the fresh-air duct was kept shut. In some instances, cardboard was nailed over the fresh-air intake. Sometimes a box is placed in front of the register in the chimney. The stove or furnace requires some care. The grates must be kept free of ashes. Special care must be taken to regulate the heat. The teacher should in-



ROOM-HEATERS

sist upon having a good thermometer. The room should be 68 degrees, never over 70 degrees, by nine o'clock, and kept as close to that temperature throughout the day as possible. There is no excuse for great variation from the normal temperature. All rooms in the building should be heated and ventilated.

In an old schoolhouse, the teacher often has no ventilating system at all, or one improperly installed. The district should be urged to put in a proper system. In the meanwhile, the teacher must ventilate by means of windows. Even with a ventilating system, it is good practice to flush the rooms thoroughly with fresh air at intermissions. Keep children away from drafts. In a recent investigation of this problem in a New York school, a committee recommended the window method of ventilation as satisfactory. They object to the mechanical system because of the uniformity of the air and tendency to overheating. There is no question but that avoidance of overheating is the prime essential of all systems of ventilation. The most important article of ventilation equipment is the thermometer. Use it. Drafts of cold air may be prevented from striking the pupils by opening the windows at the top, or by use of window-boards. Window-boards are made by cutting any width of board to fit inside the window-sash. Place this board underneath the raised window. Indirect currents of air will come in between the sash at the top and prevent direct drafts upon children. Frames covered with cheese-cloth could be made to fit inside the window-casing.

Humidity.—This is a more important factor than most people realize. The air in too many of our houses and school buildings is too dry. Medical authorities

tell us that this condition is the cause of much throat trouble and other ailments. In every room there should be some means for adding moisture to the heated air. Secure as large an evaporating surface of water as possible. On ordinary stoves a large open pan can be used. If you have a jacketed stove a pan can be hung inside on the jacket. The furnace has a pan near the fire-box. These so-called humidifiers are not always adequate, and make it necessary for us to place extra pans on registers or on the stove. Constant attention is required here, and pans or humidifiers must frequently be supplied with water.

Lighting.—We are coming more and more to appreciate the wonderful power of sunlight in purifying the air. The teacher should appreciate this natural agent and control it in her schoolroom as much as possible.

The importance of proper light cannot be overestimated. The number of rural children who suffer from defective eyesight is appalling. The school should try to remedy rather than to aggravate this physical defect. One need but look at a modern factory to see what importance some business men attach to adequate light. We should do no less for our children who are compelled to go to school than we do for the working-man. Two things are quite well established with reference to light in a schoolroom: first, the glass area should be one-fifth of the floor area, and second, all windows should be placed to the left of the pupils as they are seated. Practically all new buildings are properly lighted. This is decidedly not so with old buildings. The teacher's problem is again that of making the best of a difficult situation. The better plan, of course, would be to get the board to rearrange the windows and provide ade-

quate light. The teacher should make a serious attempt to get as much light as possible. Next to getting more windows and having them properly placed in the schoolroom, or while she is waiting for this improvement, the teacher can improve conditions in many ways. The following are suggestive of what can be accomplished:

(1) Keep window-glass clean.

(2) Keep windows free from school exhibits, drawings, daisy chains, and the like that obstruct the light.

(3) Use only sash curtains of light material, and keep them clean.

(4) Proper adjustment of shades, especially receiving as much light as possible from the upper part of the window.

(5) Trees trimmed.

Shades.—It is fully as important to know how to control the light as to have the right amount of glass area. The teacher has a responsibility here that she should fully realize. Good shades in proper working order should be insisted upon. This is especially true in buildings where the light is inadequate at best. Dark opaque shades must not be tolerated. Use only translucent shades. The best colors are: light tan, light gray, cream, light olive-green. The shades should harmonize with the walls.

The old practice of hanging stationary shades from the top should be discouraged. Adjustable shades are practical and within the reach of every school. There is no practice more harmful than to keep some of the shades down all the time because they are out of repair and will not roll. Better to remove them from the windows altogether and permit the children to move about to keep out of direct sunlight. The teacher should study the effect of proper light upon the blackboards, and

should always be on the alert to keep the best light conditions before the pupils, and herself, all the time.

It is not out of place here to suggest that the teacher's carelessness in handling shades often destroys their usefulness. Do not let pupils play with the shades. Do

PROPER LIGHTING

not pull them down too far nor allow them to run up quickly.

The accompanying cut will show how pupils should be seated and light controlled. In another chapter the effect of proper light and seating upon school work and discipline is discussed.

Seating.—The next important problem for the teacher is to see that all the pupils are properly seated. This problem is of special importance in rural schools where the children must, of necessity, spend much of the time

at their desks. Round shoulders, spinal curvature, and other physical ailments may be traced to improper seating. A child who is not physically comfortable at his desk is hard to discipline and incapable of the best intellectual effort.

The double desks of pioneer days should now be a thing of the past. They should no longer be tolerated. Only single adjustable desks should be used. The most serious problem a teacher faces is where new desks have been purchased but most of them are either too large or too small. The director cannot see why the desks are not all right: "They are almost new." Rural schools that do not use adjustable desks should have a number of extra sizes on hand. At any rate, the children of to-day should not suffer because of the mistakes or poor judgment of the directors in the past. As far as possible, every desk should be fitted to the pupil who is to occupy it. Where a desk is so large that a child's feet do not reach the floor, a box or foot rest should be placed under the desk. This seems so simple and yet it is so common to find schools where one or more children have to sit with feet hanging in the air.

Another common mistake is to find the desks arranged with all the small desks in front of the room, and then the next size, and so on. This means that a child sits on one size seat and reads on a desk smaller in size. No child can hope to fit such a combination. The teacher who is confronted with this problem should get a director or some of the older boys to help her rearrange the desks at once.

Perhaps a more common mistake is that of placing the desks *too far* apart. This can be remedied as suggested above. The proper distance apart may be ob-

tained approximately by placing the desks so that desk and front edge of the seat, when lowered, overlap two

AN IMPROPER SEAT ARRANGEMENT

and one-half inches. For a more accurate adjustment, the following is recommended:

Desks Nos. 6 and 5, nine inches from edge of desk to back of seat.

Desks No. 4, ten inches.

Desks No. 3, eleven inches.

Desks No. 2, twelve inches.

Sizes of Desks.—If stationary desks are used, they should be of five sizes, as follows:

No. 6, very small. For five, six, and seven year old children (Grades 1 and 2). No. 5 are for eight and nine year olds (Grades 2 and 3). No. 4 are for ten and

eleven year olds (Grades 3, 4, 5). No. 3 are for twelve and thirteen year olds (Grades 4, 5, 6). No. 2 are for fourteen and upward (Grades 7 and 8).

Adjustable Desks.—There is perhaps no place where adjustable desks are so desirable as in a rural school. There seems to be a greater variation in size of children, and a more frequent change in the school population. With adjustable desks, the proper adjustment can be made at any time.

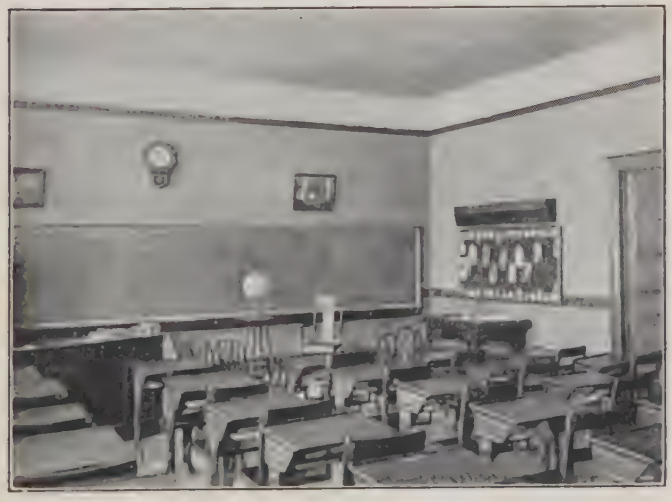
A new type of adjustable desk or movable chair has come to be quite popular and desirable also for rural schools. It consists of a chair with a writing-table or desk attached; as this chair is not fastened to the floor, the room can easily be arranged for community meetings, indoor play, or games. Where the stationary desks are used, it is advantageous to have them fastened to strips. Three desks in a group are quite satisfactory.

Proper pride in a neat, clean, orderly desk should be cultivated. It is not enough that the desks fit the pupils; they should be kept in a neat, hygienic, and sanitary condition.

Blackboards.—Our new spirit in education placing increasing emphasis upon pupil activity and less upon formal book work, demands more and better blackboards in our school. The average rural schoolroom should have one hundred square feet of blackboard. Slate is permanent and more satisfactory than any other kind. Composition blackboards will in time lose their surface and need to be replaced or painted. Only special blackboard paint should be used. The common width of blackboards is forty-two inches.

It is important that blackboards are properly placed on the wall. Remember that six and sixteen-year-old

INTERIOR OF MODERN BUILDING LOOKING NORTH



INTERIOR OF MODERN BUILDING LOOKING SOUTHWEST

pupils use the same room. Twenty-six inches from the floor is about the proper distance for primary children. Blackboards should be kept clean and free from chalk dust. Use little, if any, of the board space for exhibits. A strip or tan of green burlap just above the blackboard is excellent for this purpose. Study the various ways in which blackboards may aid in instruction. Avoid eye-strain in reading blackboard work.

Score Card for Judging Rural School Buildings and Grounds

This score card has been used by the Department of Rural Education of the Iowa State Teachers' College for the past several years.

The card can be used by any class in checking up visits to rural schools. Teachers in service can use it in their own schools for placing before school patrons and pupils a proper ideal.

House—200 Points

	PERFECT SCORE
1. Ample school room for the pupils enrolled	10
2. Separate cloak-rooms for boys and girls	10
3. House painted and in good repair	10
4. Well-built porch or vestibule	10
5. Walls and ceiling sand-finished, light tints of tan or green on side walls, ceiling cream or white. Wood finished in natural grains or light color	20
6. Lighting. The light should come largely from above and be diffused evenly from the ceiling throughout the room. All parts of the building should be sufficiently lighted. There should be no glare of light reflected from below, as from window-sills, desks, or floors. There should be no cross-lights. The light should be admitted only from the left side or from left and rear, never from right or front. Window space should equal at least one-fifth of the floor space.	30

PERFECT SCORE

7. Windows that may be raised and lowered. Fitted with adjustable shades that will allow light to enter from top part of the window..... 15
8. Heated with basement furnace or a room heater that insures an intake for pure air and outlet for foul air. If heater is in room, it must be located in one corner or at one side of the room..... 20
9. Sufficient blackboard of good quality, some within reach of small children..... 15
10. Single adjustable desks and seats, ranging in size to suit the needs of the children, and placed properly in rows according to size..... 15
11. A room or space especially provided for Domestic Science, Manual Training, and Agriculture..... 15
12. Floor. A double floor, with some deadening material between. The upper floor made of three-inch white oak, maple, or hard pine, and properly laid..... 15
13. Cleanliness of school as good as in a home of a good housekeeper..... 15

Grounds—100 *Points*

1. Playgrounds of at least one acre, kept in good condition. Weeds cut during the summer, kept smooth and free from broken glass and rubbish..... 10
2. Playground apparatus (at least the following or equivalent)..... 20
   (*a*) Sand-pile for little folk.
   (*b*) Baseball diamond.
   (*c*) Volley-ball court.
   (*d*) Low swings.
3. Trees, shrubs, and flowers properly located on the school ground..... 10
4. Good well on school grounds..... 10
5. Two sanitary outhouses with no obscene markings or cuttings, placed as far apart as possible, with doors opening toward the schoolhouse. In front of each house and extending back on both sides there should be a lattice-work completely screening the doors from the road and schoolhouse..... 20

6. A well-built convenient fuel house and storeroom..... 10
7. A good cement approach and steps to schoolhouse, and cinder or gravel walks to outbuildings..... 15
8. Flag-pole located near front of building, and flag to be flown during good weather..... 5

QUESTIONS

1. What trees would you recommend for the school grounds in your community?
2. What shrubs and flowers are worth while and practical for your State? How would you go about to secure them?
3. Write out complete directions for a clean-up day. How would you make this a school project?
4. Think of reasons to show parents the money value of a good school yard.
5. Think of ways and means whereby you can get parents and pupils to take a pride in *our* school yard.
6. What impressions do you have of the building in which you received your elementary school training? Are they educative or not?
7. Education has been defined as "making desirable changes in conduct." After visiting a rural school or your city building and enumerating the factors about it that you think make for good conduct, what factors in your opinion tend in the opposite direction?
8. What are the arguments for and against a furnace in the basement?
9. What suggested improvements other than those mentioned on pages 120–121 would you suggest for the improvement of a rural school building?
10. Suggest a State plan for improving the quality of rural school buildings.
11. What are the arguments for and against a basement for rural school buildings?
12. What is the effect of poor light upon (*a*) discipline, (*b*) primary handwork, (*c*) school grades, and (*d*) school attendance?
13. The school building is about to be repaired; what should a teacher do?

14. Boys during school hours have destroyed school property. What is the teacher's duty? Authority?
15. Why should there be a thermometer in the schoolroom?
16. What is your State doing in the matter of standardization and financial aid to rural schools?

PROBLEMS

1. Prepare a score-card for judging rural school grounds. Visit one or more rural schools and score the grounds.
2. Make a drawing of what you consider a desirable and practical school ground.
3. Draw a floor plan for a model rural school to accommodate not more than thirty-five pupils.
4. Bring to class a list of six important facts that a teacher should know about building a fire and keeping an even temperature in the schoolroom.
5. Secure catalogs from different school-supply companies and study the relative merits of the different types of desks now on the market.
6. List in order of importance the suitable equipment necessary for a good school.
7. When you go to your schoolhouse you find the outbuildings dirty. What can you do with this situation?
8. Measure the windows and floor of your schoolroom and compute the ratio of the glass area to the floor area.

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(Use same method as was suggested for Chapter II.)

CHAPTER VII

RURAL SCHOOL EQUIPMENT

To appreciate the importance of general equipment one must understand the present viewpoint in American education. One must see in it a spirit of purposeful activity on the part of pupils, a spirit of industry, and a spirit of seeking after truth. Present-day education seeks facts from all possible sources and trains the child to properly use and evaluate them. The project method, the sociological recitation, and group activity demand more than pupil and text-book. Again, the school feels responsible for health, education, and the development of morals. All this demands equipment and materials not common in the old school.

Equipment for Instruction

Maps and Globes.—The school must be equipped with a good set of suitable maps. The necessary maps in a special case can be purchased from any reliable company. It might be well to caution directors to be sure to get up-to-date maps. The State map often comes in a separate case. It is necessary that maps be placed in a proper and convenient place on the wall.

The globe should be eighteen inches in diameter and be suspended from the ceiling.

Sand Table.—A sand table is now a part of the regular equipment in primary rooms. This table need not be very expensive, and if necessary can be made by the older boys in school. The following dimensions are rec-

ommended: Length, fifty inches. Height, twenty-five inches. Width, thirty inches. Box five inches deep. The picture on this page is a good example of a sand table that was made from an old desk, formerly used by the teacher. The legs were cut off to make it the proper height. Boards were nailed around the edge of the

A HOMEMADE SAND TABLE

table-top. Oilcloth lining was used to prevent the sand from sifting through cracks and openings.

Boxes about the size of the pupil's desk would adequately serve the purpose. These could be stored away in a small space when not in use.

Seat Work Material.—This topic is of vital importance in a rural school. At best pupils spend much time alone. A good supply of materials will help the teacher to arrange seat work and make it profitable. An aver-

age school should have on hand at least ten dollars' worth of material for primary work. Each teacher should make out a list of needed material and give it to the director at the opening of the term. Make it clear to the board that the material is for educative seat work and is just as necessary as books and paper. The following suggested list of supplies has been prepared by trained, experienced rural teachers and indicates the minimum materials for one year's supply for twelve pupils.

Suggestive List of Seat Work Supplies for Rural School of Twelve Pupils

1. Heavy brown wrapping paper, not glazed—roll 24 inches wide (will last two years). (To be used for posters, booklets, charts, folders, or large envelopes for keeping materials.) $1.50.
2. Roll white wrapping paper—dull finish. (May be for posters or cut into sheets for drawing or paper cutting.) $1.50.
3. Roll of wall-paper. (Right side or wrong side used as background for long posters depicting stories.) Per roll, 10 to 30 cents.
4. Old wall-paper books (large) from a paper-hanger or drug-stores.
5. Cardboard from homes.
6. Cord from homes.
7. Manila cardboard (oak tag), 10 cents per sheet, or 6 for 50 cents, $1.00.
8. Construction paper—varied colors, 45 cents per package of 100 sheets, $1.80.
9. Poster paper, not as heavy as construction paper, but saves the construction paper. Varied colors, 13 cents per package of 50 sheets, 26 cents.
10. Manila paper (cream color) for drawing, etc., 10 cents per 50 sheets, 30 cents.
11. Writing paper, 500 sheets, $1.00.
12. Several special booklet covers and posters other than those made from brown wrapping paper, construction paper,

etc.—cardboard obtained from printing office, about 10 cents per sheet, 60 cents.

13. Pictures for booklets, etc., ½-cent size, 25 cents.
14. Pictures and other suggestive helps from advertising in magazines and papers.
15. Plastein (for modelling—may be used again and again), per pound, postage paid, 32 cents, 64 cents, or see recipe for clay below.
16. Stick print set, 13 cents each, 13 cents. Pupils may make others.
17. Paste—teacher may make her own. See recipe at close or Latta's Ideal Paste Powder, Cedar Falls, Iowa, 25 cents per pound, will make 1 quart, 50 cents.
18. Rag doll—dressed as gift to other children. Few cents for pattern—homes furnish pieces of cloth.
19. Toys made from soft pine. Pieces brought from home or some pieces of soft pine from lumber yard, $1.25.

HECTOGRAPH RECIPE

12 ounces water.
24 ounces glycerine.
2 ounces glue—white.

1 oblong pan, 12 inches by 7¼ inches and 1½ inches deep.

Heat water and white glue in a double boiler and keep on fire until melted. Add glycerine and boil one minute—mix thoroughly and pour the whole mixture into the pan.

While pouring, hold the boiler in which mixture has been cooked as close to oblong pan as possible, in order to avoid formation of air-bubbles. If bubbles rise to surface after pan has been set on level to harden, take ruler or stiff cardboard with straight edge and skim surface of hectograph as bubbles rise, in order to leave smooth when it hardens. Leave pan on level for eight hours.

To make first copy use regular hectograph ink (violet) and draw designs or write inscription on smooth paper. Let ink get fairly dry before placing on surface of hectograph. Place copy face downward on hectograph surface and press every part of the paper gently with soft cloth. Then allow to remain on from three to five minutes. Remove and make copies one at a time on common print paper.

After having made desired number of copies sponge surface with warm water to remove all traces of ink. Blot with paper and let hectograph stand for eight hours.

RECIPE FOR PASTE

1 cup flour; mix with
1 cup cold water
3 cups boiling water

Boil until transparent.

Add one teaspoon alum and half teaspoon oil of cloves (to preserve).

RECIPE FOR CLAY

1 cup salt
½ cup cornstarch
1 cup flour
4 cups water.

Let water come to boiling point.

Add salt to boiling water and stir flour and cornstarch (mixed with a little cold water) into water and let boil until clear. Then cool. Knead. Dry in air—use water afterward to soften. Can use again as clay.

Text-books.—This is one of the most fundamental considerations in school equipment. The old school, with its three R's, demanded very little. It is different now. So much time is wasted in some schools because of the inadequate supply of text-books. The new teacher will do well to find out what books are needed and have them ordered in ample time. Most county superintendents will have a county list, from which the teacher may select her supply. A study of different texts should be a part of regular methods courses. A good text is up-to-date, follows a recognized method of procedure, is well written, well bound, and attractive in appearance.

With added emphasis upon reading, there is a greater

necessity for supplementary readers. There should be at least three sets of supplementary readers for each grade. Thus, for example, the pupils in the third grade should have their regular basic readers and at least three different books of third-grade material for each member of the class. These supplementary readers are not generally looked upon as text-books, and can therefore be purchased by the board in any district. Some teachers may find it necessary to obtain money for supplementary reading material by means of entertainments.

Reference Books.—The new aim and method of instruction requires a great deal of outside material. The text is now only one source of information. No school is properly equipped unless it has some good reference material. Study the list required for each subject and special activities in school. All schools should have one large unabridged dictionary and at least five small ones.

A good encyclopædia is useful. However, get other reference work first. Get special reference works on special subjects, such as rural health, recreation, sanitation. A number of excellent bulletins may be had for the asking. The more important ones are published by the United States Bureau of Education, State Department of Education, colleges of agriculture, and teachers' colleges and universities.

Equipment for Community Meetings.—It is now an accepted fact that rural schools must develop community or neighborhood centers. The school should provide the necessary equipment. Funds for this purpose may properly be raised by the community itself. The more necessary equipment needed are folding chairs, stove and dishes for lunches, platform or stage that can be taken down, a phonograph, and song-books. Gasoline

pressure lamps or common wall lamps should be provided.

Fine Arts.—The teacher should make a special study of the part that fine arts play in our scheme of education. Rural children need a trained intelligence and appreciation as a basis for selecting and enjoying the beautful and artistic. Intelligent consumers should be our aim. Materials for drawing, art work, picture study, and music should be provided.

Commercial Exhibits.—Illustrated lessons are important in our new method of teaching. Any material that will help make lessons more attractive and hold interest is always welcomed by the teacher who plans her work. Much material may be had free. Requests can be sent to railroad companies, steamship lines, State immigration officers, and to commercial firms, such as Hershey Chocolate Company, Hershey, Pa.; Pillsbury Flour Mills, Minneapolis, Minn.; and Esterbrook Steel Pen Manufacturing Company, Camden, N. J. The teacher would do well to keep a special folder for clippings, magazine articles, pictures, and bulletins on special subjects.

Industrial Work.—A rural curriculum should provide whenever possible for elementary domestic science, agriculture, and manual training. These subjects have come into the curriculum because of the demand of the world outside the school. The equipment for these subjects need not be elaborate. In fact, it should be as simple and practical as possible. Purchase just what is needed and no more. The equipment for domestic science should be of service for farmers' club meetings and social gatherings, as well as for serving the hot lunch.

The following equipment would be desirable. It need

not all be purchased at once. Buy the absolute necessities and add to these as demands arise.

EQUIPMENT

1 double-burner blue-flame kerosene stove.
1 single-burner oven.
1 12-quart dish-pan.
1 draining-pan.
1 set of six-muffin tins.
1 large 3-pint mixing-bowl.
1 small bowl.
1 dinner-plate.
2 pie-tins (1 large, 1 small).
2 asbestos mats.
1 8-quart granite kettle and cover to fit.
1 wooden mixing-spoon (long handle).
1 ladle.
1 tablespoon (metal).
1 teaspoon (metal).
1 fork.
1 Dover egg-beater.
1 strainer.
1 paring-knife.
1 graduated measuring-cup.
1 8-inch omelet pan or skillet.
1 cupboard made out of a dry-goods box and covered with curtain.
1 9-inch baking-dish.

The equipment for agriculture is the most plentiful and least expensive. Soils, plants, animals, field crops, and poultry, with all their various problems, are on every hand. About the only equipment needed is mouse and moth proof cupboard room for supplies and specimens.

The equipment for manual training will depend upon the following factors:

(*a*) Number of pupils that will be taking it.
(*b*) Amount of room available.

(*c*) Amount of money to be used.
(*d*) Attitude of school board.
(*e*) Ability of the teacher.

The following equipment is made up for five pupils. The knives and rulers should be owned by the pupils. If only a limited equipment may be had, pupils should be induced to buy their own coping saws as well.

The equipment is arranged in a progressive order, so the tools may be bought in the order named until the money limit is used. Auger bits and chisels should be bought in the order named, as many as can be afforded.

5 knives.
1 to 5 coping saws.
Sandpaper.
1 2-foot one-fold rule.
1 5-foot ruler.
1 to 3 hammers.
1 to 3 try-squares, 6-inch.
1 or 2 back-saws, 8-inch or 12-inch, or a combination saw.
5 bench-hooks (home-made).
1 to 3 gauges.
1 each gimlet bits, 1/8-inch and 1 1/16-inch.
1 to 3 screw-drivers, 6-inch.
1 to 3 rasps, coarse and fine.
1 or 2 jack-planes.
1 or 2 combination oil stoves.
1 or 2 oil cans.
Bench (home-made).
1 brace and auger bits, Nos. 1/4-inch, 1/2-inch, 1-inch, 3/4-inch, 3/8-inch, 5/8-inch, 7/8-inch, 1 5/16-inch, 1 7/16-inch, 1 9/16-inch, 1 1/16-inch, 1 3/16-inch, 1 5/16-inch.
1 or 2 ripping saws, 24-inch 7-point.
1 or 2 cross-cutting saws, 22-inch 9-point.
1 to 3 chisels, 3/4-inch, 1/4-inch, 1-inch, 1/2-inch, 1 1/2-inch, 2-inch.
1 to 3 screw-drivers, 8-inch to 10-inch.
1 hand-drill (make drill bits of nails by cutting off the head,

flattening the point until wider than the diameter of the hole wanted).
1 to 3 spoke shaves.
1 or 2 countersinks.
1 or 2 try-squares, 10-inch.
1 framing square.
1 to 3 bevel, 8-inch.
1 drawknife.
1 smooth plane.
1 block plane.
1 ready-made bench.

Equipment for Health and Sanitation

Rural Needs.—Ours is an age when health and sanitation are emphasized. Investigations demonstrate the fact that our rural schools have not kept pace with other schools in the matter of equipment and provision for health. A new knowledge, a new vision and determination are required to bring the rural schools up to standard.

Toilets.—The question of proper toilets for rural schools is one that should receive most serious consideration. There are even to-day too many outdoor toilets that are places of filth and moral degradation. From the standpoint of health and morals, not to mention common decency, a serious attempt must be made to provide clean and sanitary toilets. Even with the best possible toilets, a most rigid supervision is required to prevent them from becoming unsanitary and loathsome. The same standard of cleanliness should prevail here as in the schoolroom.

Sufficient progress and improvements have now been made with respect to indoor chemical toilets, so that they are practical and should be installed in every

rural school. There are a number of firms who handle these toilets and can install them properly. Just where the toilets are to be placed will depend upon the building. In some cases an addition to the present building will have to be made. Often an old building is raised and a full basement is put in. In this case special rooms

SANITARY INDOOR TOILETS

for indoor toilets can easily be provided. (See cut of rural building plans.)

While indoor toilets can be installed, it is safe to predict that for years to come a majority of our rural schools will have outdoor toilets. It will therefore be necessary for the teacher to know how to handle this problem. The following factors are essential:

1. *Location.*—There should be two separate buildings located at least fifty feet apart. They should not face toward each other. The common practice is to locate them at the rear of the schoolhouse and at opposite cor-

ners of the school lot. Under no condition should the two toilets be under the same roof.

2. *Privacy.*—The entrance should be kept from view by means of screen or lattice work. A very satisfactory appearance will result if this screen is covered with vines.

3. *Buildings.*—The building must be in good repair. It must be lighted and ventilated. The door must be kept in working order and some device provided to close it automatically. The windows should be screened. One of the chief aims is to shut out flies, which spread contagious disease. The boys' toilet should have a urinal.

4. *Cleanliness.*—The same standard should prevail as for the schoolroom. Cleaning the schoolhouse should include the outbuildings. It is especially important that the walls be kept free from objectionable language and pictures. Much can be accomplished here if the teacher can develop the right spirit of co-operation and pride in a clean school among the pupils.

Water Supply.—Few teachers realize the importance of drinking water and a sanitary method of supplying it. A good supply of fresh water should be available at all times. The teacher should insist upon a satisfactory solution of this problem.

The best source of water is a driven or drilled well on the school ground. No surface or dug well is safe. The well should be protected from surface drainage.

A Few Schools Have Cisterns.—This is a good thing as a source of water for cleaning, watering plants, etc., but it is not satisfactory for drinking purposes, as it is practically impossible to keep the water clean and fresh.

A too common way of providing drinking water is by carrying it from the neighboring farm home. In this case, the teacher should satisfy herself that the water is

pure. The directors should be led to understand that it is their duty to see that water is supplied.

Fully as important as the source of the water supply is the sanitary way in which the children drink it. We have passed through the following stages of development: (*a*) The pail and common dipper. (*b*) Water-jars. (*c*) Individual drinking-cups. (*d*) Bubbler fountain. It is possible now for every rural school to have bubbler fountains. The teacher should note carefully the following:

(*a*) Keep the fountain clean.
(*b*) Keep it properly adjusted.
(*c*) Keep it from freezing.
(*d*) Keep it filled with water.

When individual drinking cups must be used, consider the following:

(*a*) How to keep cups clean, sanitary, free from dust.
(*b*) How to keep them individual.
(*c*) How to keep water fresh and clean.

The practice of each child bringing a bottle of milk will somewhat compensate for an inadequate water supply.

For General Sanitation.—(*a*) A convenient place should be provided where children can wash their hands. Liquid soap and paper or individual towels are necessary equipment.

(*b*) Sweeping compound should be used. Keep the compound where the oil will not evaporate.

(*c*) As far as possible, cloak-rooms should be heated and ventilated. Keep all wraps off the floor. Each child should have his own hook, with name or number attached.

(*d*) A special cupboard or shelf should be provided for the lunch-boxes. They should not be left scattered about the building or in cold halls.

(*e*) Foot-scrapers and a cocoa mat are very necessary and will help materially in keeping the building clean.

Good School Housekeeping.—Doctor Thorndike tells us that the task of the school is to make changes in human beings; to modify human conduct. In short, the development of character is the task of the school. Environment plays so important a part in character growth that there can be no greater motive for good school housekeeping. It is a sad situation when pupils and teacher seem to feel at home in a dirty and disorderly schoolhouse. Let this matter become a reality: "A place for everything and everything in its place." Orderliness and cleanliness and beauty are vital factors in good housekeeping. The floor should be scrubbed at least once each month and kept clean by the proper use of sweeping compound in the daily sweeping.

Beautifying the School.—To feel at home with the beautiful is a priceless characteristic. The school should foster this trait. Remember "the human soul absorbs its environment." An artistic atmosphere should be every teacher's goal.

The schoolroom may be beautified in the following manner: The walls and ceilings should be painted. The ceiling should be lighter than the walls. While a number of color combinations are proper, the common practice is to paint the ceiling a cream color and the walls tan.

Shades in proper color and properly adjusted and kept in good repair add to the attractiveness of the room. Clean and well-kept desks are likewise important. A

few good pictures appropriately framed will play no little part in the education of boys and girls.

Care and judgment in the display of school work are essential. It is so easy to overdo here and forget to take displays and posters down when they become old, soiled, and out of shape. Flowers and window-boxes always add to the attractiveness of the room.

So much can be accomplished by the teacher if she has some idea of harmony and proper proportion. A talented teacher can do a great deal with blackboard decoration and posters. The intelligent co-operation of pupils should always be secured. Here, as elsewhere, it is the spirit that quickens.

This is a Continuation of the Score Card at Close of Chapter VI

Furnishing and Supplies—200 Points

	PERFECT SCORE
1. A good desk for the teacher	10
2. One dozen folding chairs for community center meetings	9
3. Bookcase	5
4. Supply cupboard	5
5. Good library, consisting of well-chosen books for each grade, with annual additions as required by law	20
6. A standard encyclopædia for school use	10
7. One unabridged dictionary, two student dictionaries	10
8. A well-chosen supply of material for educative seat work	10
9. Three well-chosen wall pictures	8
10. Burlap wall map for exhibit purposes	5
11. Set of good maps	8
12. An eight-inch globe	7
13. Set of measures and scales	7
14. Two thermometers	5
15. Sand-table	7
16. Desk copies of all books for teacher's use	5

17. Sweeping compound..... 9
18. Dustless crayon, noiseless erasers, pointer, brooms, door mats, foot-scrapers, wall clock..... 5
19. Wash basin, mirror, individual towels, modern sanitary drinking equipment..... 15
20. Equipment for Manual Training, including bench and not less than $10 worth of simple beginning tools.. 10
21. Equipment for Domestic Science, including a small cupboard, a work-table, an oil or gas stove, and at least $8 worth of cooking utensils..... 20
22. Supplies and simple equipment for teaching agriculture 10

QUESTIONS

1. What is the relation between school equipment and teacher success?
2. Just what is implied in this statement? The teacher is known by the equipment with which she is satisfied.
3. What effect will the present tendency in education toward student activity have upon reference books and illustrative material?
4. How often should the schoolhouse be scrubbed?
5. What are the essential principles of good housekeeping?
6. Which is more important—a love for the beautiful or a knowledge of subject matter?
7. Which do you think is more expensive to a district—good equipment and beautiful and health-producing surroundings or irregular attendance?
8. What papers and magazines should the school take?
9. Why do you consider the sand-table a useful piece of furniture?

PROBLEMS

1. Visit one or two rural schools and write a report of the equipment found, making suggestions for improvement.
2. Make out a complete list of text-books and reference materials for a rural school. Has your State or county an approved list?
3. Make as complete a list as possible of firms from whom illustrative material may be obtained. Each class mem-

ber should make out an order and discuss the merits of different articles offered.

4. Illustrate the effect of environment upon conduct.
5. Make a list of ten good pictures for schoolrooms and give reasons for your choice in each case.
6. Draw a schoolroom located ideally with reference to compass. Locate light, seats, and other equipment properly.
7. Explain how you would supply sanitary drinking facilities.

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1. Wilkinson, W. A.: *Rural School Management*, Chapters III and IV.
2. Barnes, Ina G.: *Rural School Management*, Chapters VII and VIII.
3. Carney, Mabel: *Country Life and Country School*, Chapter X.
4. Dresslar: *School Hygiene*, Chapters IV, V, VIII, IX, X, XI, XIII, XIV, XV.
5. Foght: *The American Rural School*, Chapter VII.
6. Rapeer: *Educational Hygiene*, Chapters VIII, XIX, XX.
7. Salisbury: *School Management*, Chapters II, III, IV.
8. Shaw: *School Hygiene*, Chapters I, IV, V, VII.
9. Bulletins, State and National: On Rural School Equipment.

Write to State Department of Education of your State for their latest bulletin on rural school buildings and equipment. Write the Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, for their bulletins on Rural School Equipment.

CHAPTER VIII

PLANNING FOR THE FIRST DAY

Importance of the First Day.—A good beginning is of importance in making any kind of work a success. This is especially true in teaching, because so much depends upon the success of the first day. The pupils come expectant and watchful, ready to give attention to anything that may be suggested by the new teacher, but ever on the alert for any signs of weakness. The impressions made on this day remain with the boys and girls until they reach home, and then the most discussed individual of the community is the new teacher. Many questions of importance must be decided on this beginning day. These questions cannot be deferred or left for some one else to decide. The teacher must decide them. She must organize classes, assign lessons, prepare educative seat work, and work out a tentative program for the first day. If this teacher has made adequate preparation along the lines that will follow, the first day ought not to be dreaded, but will be the culmination of a well-planned piece of work.

Duties Before the First Day

Survey the Field.—When a railroad corporation begins to consider the building of a new road it sends out a group of surveyors. These surveyors make a careful study of all conditions in order that the company may have definite information on all necessary curves, cuts, fills, bridges, and grades along the proposed right of

way. The teacher in a sense must assume the position of a surveyor before beginning her school in order to discover the attitude of the people. The school records and recommendation of the former teacher, the needs of the school, and a boarding-place must be investigated. Mere investigation is hardly sufficient. The wise teacher will plan every movement for the day before she comes to her job. No detail is so unimportant that it may be omitted. If a teacher is wise enough to make such a study before her school begins, she has at least done what a wise builder ought to do, and her success is almost assured.

Discover Public Attitudes.—A thorough knowledge of public sentiment is necessary in order that a teacher may more nearly meet the situations that may arise. The educational resources and ideals, the church and the religious standards of the neighborhood should be known. The environment of the pupils outside as well as within the homes should be studied. The attitude of the people toward improvement should be learned. The nationality of the people and their moral standards should be investigated. The teacher should get in touch with the school officers, and if possible visit the schoolhouse and grounds before planning her work.

The teacher who will thus investigate, even in a small way, the sentiments and attitudes of the neighborhood into which she is going will be saved many difficulties when she attempts to organize and manage her school.

Secure Boarding-Place.—It is assumed at the outset that the teacher expects to live where she works. With this thought in mind, a place to live in is the first consideration. But two questions immediately confront her:

1. Can a boarding-place be found?
2. What are the characteristics of a good boarding-place?

The first of these problems usually comes up because of two personalities involved: the teacher and the landlady. Sometimes teachers thoughtlessly demand too much attention. This causes those who board the teacher to close their doors. Again, landladies may not be willing to open their homes, because they do not care to be *bothered*. However, both individuals must remember that co-operation and the spirit of fellowship and good-will need to be practised here as elsewhere. Teachers cannot live in the country where they work unless they are provided with living quarters. On the other hand, patrons of schools must not criticise the teacher for boarding outside the community if they do not assist in this important matter of securing a good boarding-place.

A teacher must use care in selecting this boarding-place from the standpoint of neighborhood and family relations. Many times the teacher innocently gets into the wrong environment through lack of tactful inquiry before making a decision.

What are the characteristics of a good boarding-place?

1. If possible, a home in which no school children reside.
2. One that provides a comfortable room for the teacher:
   (*a*) Properly heated.
   (*b*) Well lighted (for reading purposes).
   (*c*) Quiet.
3. Good, wholesome food.
4. A place in which the teacher feels at home.

5. People who have a good reputation in the neighborhood.

Visit Schoolhouse.—The teacher should visit the school building and grounds if possible before the first day. To be sure of a good beginning the outbuildings should be clean, in good repair, and in a sanitary condition. The weeds, ash piles, and general rubbish about the school yard should be removed, trees trimmed, and fences put in good condition The interior of the building should be in readiness. It should be thoroughly cleaned. The necessary furniture should be in place and ready for use. An investigation should be made as to the kind of stove in use, how to ventilate the building, the lighting system, the amount and kind of blackboard.

There are certain routine duties that the teacher must plan before the school begins, and if these are well worked out the chances for success are multiplied. The seating of classes and individuals should be thought through tentatively. Children should be allowed to select their own seats as far as possible, but in case the seats chosen are not suitable the teacher should assist, because comfort aids greatly in securing attention and accomplishing results.

Plans should be made regarding the best method of passing to and from classes. Often, equipment and other obstructions make this process more or less difficult. Methods of caring for wraps should be considered.

The best manner to convene school needs attention, *i. e.*, shall the children line up outside and march in, or otherwise. Again the method of dismissal must be adapted to the building and equipment. Any other details peculiar to the school in which one is to teach will be taken under consideration, because if all these

seemingly small details can be planned before the first day the teacher's strength will be increased manyfold. Here, as elsewhere, "everlasting persistence is the price of safety."

Check Supplies.—This day of all days must be well planned. Each class should have something to do every minute. Seat work must be in readiness. Extra paper and pencils are provided for those who may have "forgotten." All supplies such as chalk, erasers, and desk copies of books in use must be at hand. The supplies needed for janitor work, the water-jar, drinking-cups, wash-dish, looking-glass, and all other equipment should be checked and located.

Find School Records.—The classification register used by the former teacher should be secured from the president or secretary of the school board and carefully studied for several days before school begins in order that the teacher may properly organize and classify the school. From this record a tentative program should be made. This classification register, if properly kept by the former teacher, will include the following data:

1. Names and ages of pupils.
2. Classification of pupils.
3. Record of progress in the county course of study for last term.
4. Record of pupils' standing and attainments in various branches.
5. Studies completed the last term.
6. Remarks and recommendations on the work of each individual pupil.
7. Number of classes and number of pupils in each class.
8. Names and authors of text-books used.

9. Number of pages covered in these text-books.

10. Remarks on the work of each class.

11. Complete copy of daily program of study and recitation.

12. Needs of apparatus and books.

In the chapter on records and reports a great deal of stress is placed upon this topic. If the former teacher has done what was expected of her in the matter of keeping full and complete records the new teacher will now be able to organize and arrange her classes without great loss of valuable time. She will not need to depend upon what some child may say about classes and other details. The record stands for itself. It is businesslike.

In the teacher's desk or in the library there should be a copy of the State course or county course of study, which will assist in showing in detail the subjects to be taught in the various grades and the requirements for each grade. If you do not find such a course, ask your county superintendent for one.

Plan a Tentative Program.—With the aid of the classification register and the State or county course of study just discussed, the teacher will be able to formulate a temporary program of activity for the first day. The classes can be organized so that work can begin at once. Educative seat work can be planned for the beginning classes. Every child in the school should be kept busy, and by careful planning with the data left by former records the teacher can prepare work for all classes. Some of the work planned should be spirited review material that will encourage the children to take hold of the new work with more zeal. All reading classes can be given interesting work.

With this done the teacher should make plans for the opening exercises of the first day. It is almost impossible to estimate just how much depends upon the first impression that the boys and girls secure of their teacher. Hence the opening exercises should be thoroughly planned before the day arrives.

The teacher should plan on making a little general talk on the first morning. This can be given in such a way as to gain the pupils' confidence and good-will. The teacher should not begin by repeating rules and "don'ts," but in a short "heart to heart" talk she should let the pupils understand that she is there to help them. She is their friend. Tell them she has only one rule, and that is "Do right," and in a very tactful way let them know that as long as they do right all will be well. At this time the purpose of the school should be brought before the pupils.

Teacher's Duties on First Day

Be on Time.—To be on the ground before any of the pupils arrive is indeed important. The very fact that the teacher is there first to greet the pupils seems to make her case much stronger and gives her a feeling of security. To do this it may be necessary to get to the schoolhouse at 7.30 o'clock on the opening day. It shows a lack of energy and business ability to come to school late at any time, but more especially on the first day. If it is the season of the year for a fire, and the teacher is responsible, the room should be warm and comfortable when the children arrive.

Have Schoolroom and Equipment in Readiness.—Even though the teacher has visited the schoolroom before

school begins, now is the time to make final adjustments. All supplies should be placed on the teacher's desk, such as extra papers, pencils, handwork materials. Erasers and chalk should be placed at the blackboards. Outlines, assignments, some problems for the arithmetic classes, and questions on the various reading-lessons should be placed on the board. If it is the season of fire-building, some extra fuel should be brought in. Although many anxious hands would volunteer to get a pail of water, it would be a very good plan for the teacher to get the water for this first day, so that nothing could prevent a good beginning.

Meet Pupils.—When the pupils begin to come in the teacher should give her entire attention to their needs —speak to them individually and inquire their names if she does not already know them. Make it as easy as possible for the bashful ones. Do not dictate as to what seats they shall take, but tell them to sit anywhere they desire, and when the opportune time comes let them know they may keep the seat of their choice as long as conditions remain satisfactory. Help the little ones with their wraps. Be as sociable as conditions will permit. Act natural. Carry on an easy conversation, but avoid questions concerning former teachers and their policies.

Begin School on Time.—At nine o'clock "sharp" school should be called. Now is the time for the teacher "*to begin as she expects to continue.*" If she has certain plans to put into operation, marching in when school is called, for example, take time at this place to explain the why and wherefore, and have it done as planned. The same may be said of any activity that the teacher intends to put into practice.

Conduct Opening Exercises.—School is called and every one sits expectant and still. Now comes, perhaps, the most quiet time that will occur in the school during the year, also the best time to impress these waiting children. The new teacher's plans are all strange and interesting. During the first few hours, discipline will be very easy indeed, because all attention is centered on the new conditions. At this time, the little speech mentioned above must be given. Much depends upon the following points as to how well the speech carries its message to these anxious listeners:

First, how much real feeling is put into the voice and face of the teacher; second, the amount and use of tact; third, how much of "We," and how little of "I" can be used.

Below is a suggestive weekly program for opening exercises:

9.00–9.20—*Opening Exercises*

Daily:	2 to 5 minutes: health report.
Monday:	General lessons in citizenship.
Tuesday:	Devotional (Bible stories, memorizing passages from Bible).
Wednesday:	Current events (chart of important events kept).
Thursday:	Devotional, as Tuesday.
Friday:	Voluntary program to motivate story-telling, reading composition, and singing. It may sometimes be a "catch-up" period in drawing, handwork, and bird study.

The opening exercise for the first day is, of course, different than any other day of the year, and can be varied to meet the needs. *It must be well planned.*

Continue Tentative Program Throughout the Day.—After the opening exercises are over, the work of the day

begins. Every class and exercise planned should be carried on according to schedule. Every one should have a task.

Recesses and all intermissions should receive attention during the first day in order that the following days may be successful.

Play needs supervision on this first day even more than any other day of the year. This is especially true if the playground has been neglected during former terms. The teacher should so plan her work and so encourage play that the boys and girls will enjoy the play periods more because she is there in their midst than they would without her.

The noon lunch should be conducted according to plans for the year. This is more especially true of the supervised lunch than the lunch with the hot supplement. The hot supplement requires too much detail for first-day plans.

The afternoon program ought to be carried on with as much zeal as the forenoon program. All assignments and plans for the following day must be made. The closing of school on this first day should be accomplished in due form and order so that the boys and girls will proceed to their homes feeling that the first day has been in the presence of a teacher whose plans and methods bespeak of business and progress.

Thus the first day closes, and if the teacher has done the best she could, and has followed her well made plans, there will be no cause for regret. She may see where she can improve on her plans for the beginning day next term, but that is a sign of growth and not defeat.

The necessity of the right type of a first day is shown by the following quotations and suggestions from C. P. Colegrove's book, *The Teacher and the School*:

The First Day.—The importance of the first day in the term is insisted upon by all writers on school management. Bell says: "Upon no other day of the school year does so much depend. The impressions made the first day, especially the first morning, will be lasting and will have a powerful influence for good or for bad upon all future work." Questions of vital importance press upon the teacher for prompt and wise action. The pupils come, as a rule, full of interest and expectation and ready to fall in with plans and suggestions of the teacher, but with keen eyes for signs of weakness, insincerity, and sham. There are many problems that must be answered. They cannot be deferred or evaded. There is no one of whom to ask advice; the teacher must depend upon his own judgment. The great object of the teacher in this first day's work is to make a favorable impression upon the school, to win the respect and good-will of all the pupils, and through them to gain the confidence of the parents.

Some Additional Suggestions.—Omit the opening exercises unless you are sure that you can make them interesting and brief.

Begin as you intend to continue during the term.

Place the assignment of the first lessons on the blackboard before the time for opening the school.

Endeavor to carry out your plans just as you have made them. Lose no time but assign work promptly, see that every pupil has something to do, and begin recitations as soon as possible.

Aim to make the first day's work a full day's work, allowing no puttering, dawdling, or waste of time.

Give very clear and definite directions for all movements and explain the signals to be used, and enforce all your signals and directions rigidly from the first.

QUESTIONS

1. A teacher visits a school and finds the outhouses in very poor condition. The vaults need cleaning and the walls are covered with foul marks. What should she do about it?
2. What are the advantages of being at school on time the first morning?
3. What argument can you give for visiting your school and neighborhood before school begins.

4. What information would you like to have before beginning school?
5. The classification register handed to the new teacher shows that few records were kept. How will the new teacher meet this problem?
6. The teacher finds upon visiting the school that the cleaning was poorly done. The stove-pipe is hanging by one rusty wire, the grates are burned out. What would you do?
7. Before you enter into a contract to teach, what requests would you make of your school board regarding the school and equipment?
8. What do you gain by meeting each pupil the first morning before school calls?

PROBLEMS

1. Make a list of various types of first-day opening exercises that you consider good. Outline what you are going to say in your talk.
2. Your director wants to know how much and what kind of material you want at your schoolhouse for the first day. Prepare an answer.
3. A teacher seeks a boarding-place in a community, but finds none. Under such circumstances, what would you do?
4. A director comes down to your school to trim the trees and shrubbery, also make some needed repairs. What would you do to make his work most successful?

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CHAPTER IX

CLASSIFICATION AND ORGANIZATION OF A ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL

The teacher of a one-room rural school, more than any other, needs guidance for her work through a well-planned course of study. With all of the elementary grades to teach, with little personal assistance from an experienced supervisor, with pupils frequently irregular in attendance, and with much changing both by pupils and teachers from one school to another, the possibilities for an aimless hit and miss effort are indeed plentiful. A good course of study conscientiously followed by the teacher is, therefore, very essential. Colegrove * says concerning the course of study: "It is the most natural and concrete expression of the aims of the school. It serves the teacher both as chart and log-book. It makes possible the steady, unbroken progress of the pupil in his efforts to realize the aims of the school."

Teacher's Responsibility.—The teacher's responsibility in this matter cannot be emphasized too strongly. It is of vital importance to the success of the school that she should thoroughly understand the aims and purposes of a course of study and what it includes. It is equally important that she should conscientiously and wisely follow it. She must realize that at best it can only be a skeleton of the work to be done, and that it cannot be complete in specific directions for all details. No matter how much effort may have been put into the

* C. P. Colegrove, *The Teacher and the School.*

preparation of it, and how perfect it may be, it still remains for the teacher to make it effective. It is she who must put life and purpose into it and apply it to the daily needs of the school.

Teachers may ordinarily be divided into two general groups: first, those who use the course of study, and second, those who do not. The teacher in the first group is the one who, when the county superintendent calls, can tell definitely where each class is with reference to the course of study. She will have it on her desk, and its general appearance will show quite conclusively that it has been in daily use. With a teacher in the second group it is quite different. She admits to the superintendent, with considerable embarrassment, that she does not know how she has kept pace with the course of study, and when he asks if he may see her copy, she blushes as she begins to search for it, and finally discovers it among some old papers in the bottom drawer of her desk.

Aims of the Course of Study.—Concretely stated, some of the aims of the course of study are:

1. To prevent blind, aimless, unsystematic work in our elementary schools.

2. To provide a plain and progressive outline for the guidance of teachers, directors, and county superintendents, so that pupils may be encouraged to complete the elementary school course.

3. To reduce to a minimum the waste of time, money, and effort caused by lack of proper organization, poor classification, defective program, and frequent change of teachers.

4. To furnish definite outlines in all the subjects that the law requires to be taught in the elementary schools.

5. To arrange the subject matter of the course by years, units, and months, so that teachers and pupils may have a practical standard by which to measure their progress—may know where they are in the course.

6. To unify the work of all the schools of a district, county, or State, and thus make effective supervision possible.

7. To enlist the interest of parents and secure their co-operation by making them acquainted with what the schools are striving to accomplish.

What a Course of Study Should Include.—There are six groups of allied studies which are generally required to be taught in all elementary schools. With a few changes and additions we reproduce these groups as set forth in the *Iowa Course of Study and Manual of Methods.*

1. *Language and Literature Group.*—This is the first and most important group in every elementary course. It includes (1) Reading; (2) Spelling; (3) Phonics; (4) Writing; (5) Language Work and Composition; (6) Grammar; (7) English Classics.

The supreme importance of this group of studies is apparent for the following reasons:

(*a*) These studies are valuable for their utility, their mental discipline, and their culture.

(*b*) They afford the means of communication among men and thus make possible social co-operation.

(*c*) They constitute the chief means by which pupils *acquire* knowledge both in school and after they leave the school.

(*d*) They are the keys that unlock the treasures of civilized society and bring the pupils into intelligent and sympathetic union with the great ideals and as-

pirations of the race as expressed in the world's best literature.

2. *Science Group.*—In the elementary course, science is represented by (1) Nature Study; (2) Geography; (3) Physiology and Hygiene; (4) Elements of Science.

It is the purpose of these studies to teach the pupil his relation to his environment.

(*a*) The study of these subjects should cultivate the pupil's power of perception and open his eyes to see the wonders of the world about him.

(*b*) They should reveal to the child the beauty of the common things in nature.

(*c*) They should give him a respect for his own body and a knowledge of how to care for it.

(*d*) They should give him the power to picture vividly the places and countries that are beyond the reach of his senses and teach him to realize how closely distant countries are bound to his own community by social. commercial or political ties.

(*e*) They should lay a sure foundation for the appreciative study of the natural sciences later in his course.

3. *Mathematics Group.*—In this group are (1) Numbers; (2) Arithmetic; (3) Business Forms.

The aims of this group are exceedingly practical:

(*a*) A knowledge of numbers and arithmetic is absolutely necessary in every department of learning. The lessons and pages and paragraphs in the reader are numbered, as are the hours of the day, the days of the week and the month. The size and weight of all objects are expressed in numbers and ratios. The value of every article in the schoolroom or out of it is measured in arithmetical terms. The length of rivers, the height of mountains, the size of farms, the distance from home to

school and from city to city, all are computed and expressed by means of arithmetic.

(*b*) Through the study of arithmetic the pupil reduces the world to an orderly and comparatively simple system of objects and forces controlled by general laws.

(*c*) These studies afford the basis for the successful pursuit of all the exact sciences and all study of higher mathematics.

(*d*) They afford a direct and essential preparation for the ordinary business transactions of daily life.

4. *History Group.*—This group comprises (1) Oral Lessons; (2) Local History; (3) History; (4) State Civics; (5) Biography.

One of the fundamental defects in our ordinary elementary courses of study is that they make no provision for the continuous and systematic study of history in the lower grades. To postpone the study of history until the sixth or the seventh year of the course in American schools is little less than criminal, for less than one-half of our boys and girls ever complete the work of the first six grades. Oral lessons in history in the form of myths, folk-lore, legends, traditions, stories, and biographies should have a place in all elementary courses during the first five years. The general aims of the history group of studies are:

(*a*) To prepare the pupil for the intelligent study of the text-book in United States history.

(*b*) To direct the pupil's outside reading in history and biography and save him from the slavery to the trashy reading so prevalent everywhere.

(*c*) To acquaint pupils with human actions, motives, and virtues expressed in concrete forms in the lives of actual men and women; to set up ideals of conduct and

of service to humanity; to trace the origin, growth, and progress of the State; to reveal the relation of the individual to society; and to inspire the children in our schools with an intelligent love of their country and its institutions.

(*d*) To teach all pupils the true meaning, value, and duties of citizens of the Republic.

5. *Art Group.*—Included in this group are (1) Vocal Music; (2) Drawing and Painting; (3) Physical Training.

These studies are a necessary part of the education of every child.

(*a*) They afford the only means and opportunity for æsthetic culture that most pupils will ever have.

(*b*) Vocal music affords a natural opportunity for teaching good bodily habits, correct breathing, and distinct articulation. It is an excellent means of teaching quickness and accuracy of sight and hearing, arousing right feeling, and concentrating the attention.

(*c*) Drawing, painting, and hand work are easy, natural, and graphic modes of expressing ideas. They impress knowledge upon the mind in the most effective way, cultivate accurate observation, stimulate interest, and form the basis of clear and definite memory images.

6. *Vocational Subjects.*—The trend of present-day elementary education is away from the extreme bookishness of the ordinary school education. This trend is shown in the laws, recently enacted in so many States, requiring teachers to give instruction in vocational subjects. These subjects include (1) Elementary Agriculture; (2) Domestic Science, or Household Arts; (3) Constructive Work and the Manual Arts.

The aims of these vocational subjects are partly educational and partly practical.

PLAN FOR THE ORGANIZATION OF THE

DIVISION	E	D	C	
YEAR	I	II	III	IV
Reading	Primers and First Readers	First and Second Readers	Third Readers	Fourth Readers
	Read twice daily			
Language	Oral Language		Oral Language	
Phonics and Spelling	Phonics	Phonics	Spelling	
Numbers and Arithmetic	Numbers	Numbers	Elementary Arithmetic	
Geography	GENERAL LESSONS			Elementary Geography Alternate with History
				Elementary History Alternate with Geography
Physiology and Hygiene				
Civics and Citizenship				
Music				All
Writing				Alternate
Drawing and Hand Work	Given in connection with Language and General Lessons			
Agriculture				
Manual Training Domestic Science	Given in connection with General Lessons			

* Recitation periods counted in connection with other subjects.

COURSE OF STUDY IN A ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL

B		A		
V	VI	VII	VIII	NUMBER OF RECITATIONS
Fifth and Sixth Readers		Seventh and Eighth Readers and Supplementary Classics		8
Language		Grammar		4
Spelling		Spelling		4
Intermediate Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	5
Geography or History		Geography or History		4
History or Geography		History or Geography		*
Elementary Hygiene Alternate with Civics		Advanced Physiology and Hygiene Alternate with Civics		*
Community Civics and Citizenship Alternate with Hygiene		Civics and Citizenship Alternate with Hygiene		2
Divisions				1
with Drawing				1
Alternate with Writing				*
One recitation per week in place of Reading				*
One recitation per week in place of Language and Civics				*
			Total number of recitations	29

(*a*) They should afford pupils a natural and welcome relief from the monotony and drudgery of continuous book study.

(*b*) They should lessen the evils of fatigue, prevent eye-strain, offset the dangers of close confinement to seats, and encourage pupils to express and apply their knowledge as fast as it is acquired.

(*c*) They should help to bridge the chasm between the life of the school and the life outside the school. They should serve to connect the school with the home, the shop, and the field.

(*d*) They should stimulate interest in every other study in the course and vitalize all the instruction of the school, revealing to the pupil the worth of knowledge as a means of sustaining life, securing the comforts of the home, and ministering in manifold ways to the happiness and welfare of mankind.

A Plan of Organization.—The plan on pages 174 and 175, and notes on the plan, for the organization of the course of study in a one-teacher school are taken from an Iowa State Teachers' College bulletin. It represents the combined thought and experience of several people, both teachers and supervisors, who have seriously studied this problem in the actual operation of a number of one-teacher schools.

Notes on the Plan for the Organization of the Course of Study in a Rural or Other One-Teacher School

Reading.—Separate classes should be formed for the I, II, III, and IV year pupils. The combination of III and IV year pupils in reading is not recommended, (1) because of the transition from emphasis on the mechanics

of reading to emphasis on the thought content, which should have been made by the time a child has finished his third year in school, and (2) because of the consecutively graded nature of the material in most standard Third Readers, which makes it an injustice to a IV year pupil to require him to go back over the same ground a second time. V and VI year pupils may be grouped in one class to take up Fourth Reader material; VII and VIII year pupils in one class with Fifth Reader material, where a five-book series is used. Silent reading should form a part of the reading lesson in the class period. When a whole class period is devoted to silent reading and individual reports, the "C," "B," and "A" divisions may often be grouped into one class. Much material in history, geography, and arithmetic may be regarded as having silent reading value.

Language.—The language needs of I and II year pupils will be taken care of in the general lesson period, supplemented, wherever possible, by an additional oral language period each day. Separate classes should be formed for III and IV, V and VI, and VII and VIII year pupils. At least one day a week should be devoted to the formation of correct language habits, and to the correction of errors in English. This may profitably be done by means of language games. For this work pupils of various divisions may be grouped in one class. The language work of the "C" and "D" divisions should be largely oral. Where a text-book is put into the hands of the III and IV year pupils, the book should be used as a guide to the teacher, not as a text for the pupils.

Phonics and Spelling.—Unless the manual of the method used in phonics requires a different line of procedure, I year pupils should not begin phonics until they

have acquired a sufficient stock of sight words to enable them to read with more or less ease. Separate classes should be formed for the I and II year pupils for the teaching of phonics, the classes reciting on alternate days. When I year pupils have received sufficient instruction in phonic elements, they may be grouped with II year pupils for drill. The work in phonics should be definitely related to the reading lesson as soon as the pupils' knowledge of phonic elements permits it.

Spelling as a separate subject need not be provided for in the first two years. The written language needs, which spelling serves, may be met in these years in connection with the assignment, preparation, and presentation of the daily lesson in language. Two separate periods for spelling daily for the pupils above the II year are sufficient for any one-teacher school. The recitation period should be long enough to enable the teacher to handle the work on the basis of the individual needs of the pupils. The close relation existing between spelling and written language should always be observed.

Writing.—A separate period should be devoted not less than three times a week to the teaching of writing for all pupils above the II year. Special attention should be given in connection with the language work to the teaching of beginners to write and to the individual needs of all the pupils in writing. Every written lesson, especially the spelling lesson, should be a writing lesson.

Mathematics.—Pupils of the I and II years should have separate class periods in numbers. An occasional combination of these groups may be made for number games. III and IV year pupils may be grouped to-

gether; V year pupils should have a separate class period, because so many of the important phases of the subsequent work in arithmetic are based upon a proper knowledge of fractions. One recitation period of not less than thirty minutes should be set aside for the work of VI, VII, and VIII year pupils in arithmetic. The pupils of each year may be given different assignments of work, all, however, working at the board at the same time under supervision of the teacher. The teacher should take care to see that her attention is distributed among the different groups and to plan her work so that only the pupils of any one year may take up a new topic in any given day. Thoughtful consideration of this plan will prove that it is quite different from an alternation of study and recitation. Bear in mind constantly the necessity of adjusting subject matter to the needs of the pupils. All problem material should be related to actual life situations.

Following is an outline of essential subject matter:

Year I

Reading and writing numbers to 100.
Twenty-five addition combinations (none of them more than 10).
Subtraction as inverse of addition.
Denominate numbers: inch, foot, pint, quart, nickel, dime, quarter, etc.

Year II

Reading and writing numbers to 1,000.
Remainder of the forty-five addition combinations.
Completion of the subtraction combinations arising from addition combinations. Multiplication introduced.
Denominate numbers continued.

Years III and IV

Review and extension of work of preceding years to secure a basis for classification.

Column addition and subtraction.
Completion of multiplication tables.
Short division.
Long division.
Problem work to illustrate all processes with integers.

Year V

Common fractions introduced as a type of number.
Fundamental operations with common fractions, limiting work to fractions of ordinary difficulty.
Decimal fractions introduced through U. S. money.

Years VI and VII

Reviews and drills in the phases of common fractions.
Completion of decimal fractions.
Introduction and development of percentage.
Application of percentage in profit and loss, trade discount, commission.
Mensuration of length and of plane figures.
Constant use of problems for illustration and development of principles.

Year VIII

Problems in taxes, insurance, stocks and bonds.
Business practices.
Mensuration of solids in actual use.

Music.—All the pupils of the school may be grouped in one class for most of the work in music. The use of the talking machine is recommended as the basis for the standardization of this work. Instructions in the elements of musical theory should be given only to pupils above the IV year.

General Lessons.—No organization of a one-teacher school is complete without a general lesson period for pupils in the first four years. The work of the five days of the week may be arranged as follows:

Weekly Program

Monday.	Language Games for I, II, III, and IV years.
Tuesday.	Community Civics for I, II, III, and IV years.
	Patriotism, memorizing patriotic gems, study of the flag, thrift, good manners, morals, health, citizenship stories, and other lessons pertaining to little citizens of U. S.
Wednesday.	Language Games for I, II, III, and IV years.
Thursday.	Primary Geography, I, II, III years, taught chiefly through Nature Study and Nature Stories. Picture study of animals and other nature subjects, along with directions, weather chart, and land forms of locality.
Friday.	Story Hour, I, II, and III years.
	Fairy tales, myths, history stories (about people), Mother Goose, picture study, etc.
	Observation, conversation, dramatization, oral sentence structure.

Geography.—The essential work in geography in the first three years will be done through general lessons. A separate class period for geography and history will be maintained each year for IV-year pupils, the work in each subject being taken up alternately by monthly units. A similar plan of alternation by monthly units will be followed in the organization of the work in history and geography for V and VI year pupils and for VII and VIII year pupils.

History.—One general lesson period a week may be devoted to the teaching of history to pupils in the first three years. A separate class period for geography and history will be maintained each year for IV-year pupils, the work in each subject being taken up alternately by monthly units. The plan of monthly alternation is recommended to be followed in history class organiza-

tion for the pupils of V and VI and of the VII and VIII years.

A brief outline of subject matter follows:

Years I, II, and III.

Study of primitive life, and projects growing out of them. "Special days" in connection with the opening exercise period.

Year IV.

State history, pioneer projects, and Greek and Roman history stories.

Years V and VI.

European history stories fundamental to American history; American history stories, with emphasis on chronology of main events.

Years VII and VIII.

The study of an advanced text in American history.

Physiology and Hygiene.—Lessons in personal and community hygiene will form a part of the work in community civics in the first four years. As indicated below, in the V and VI years the study of an elementary text, and in the VII and VIII years the study of an advanced text, in hygiene may be taken up in alternation monthly with community civics. See *State Outline*, "A Course in Citizenship."

Community Civics.—For the work of the first four years in community civics, see *General Lessons and State Outline in Community Citizenship.* This work should alternate in monthly units with hygiene.

V and VI year pupils may be combined for this work. VII and VIII year pupils may take up the study of an advanced text in civics and citizenship in monthly alternation with an advanced text in hygiene. Throughout all of this work in community civics, opportunity should

never be lost to relate it closely to the work in language, the composition phase of which may be based largely upon topics drawn from community civics.

Drawing and Handwork.—Drawing and handwork for the pupils in the first four years should be closely connected with and grow out of their reading, language, and general lessons. A definite period for the teaching of drawing and handwork should be planned for all other pupils at least twice each week.

Industrial Subjects.—In the first four years of the course the work in the industrial subjects should be limited to the work in nature study and drawing and handwork given in connection with the general lessons and language. Because of the nature of the work in domestic science and manual training, an ordinary recitation period of fifteen or twenty minutes is not sufficiently long to accomplish much work of real value. The time on Friday afternoon following recess should be set aside for the work in manual training and domestic science by all pupils above the IV year. While the upper grade pupils are engaged in industrial work, the pupils of the first four years may be engaged in handwork growing out of their general lessons. Thirty minutes a week may be secured for the work in agriculture by taking one period from that set aside for the "A" and "B" reading for both boys and girls.

QUESTIONS

1. To what extent are our courses of study based upon tradition?
2. Wherein should a course of study for rural schools differ from the one used in Chicago?
3. To what extent does the community have a voice in making the course of study?

4. Does a course of study, when conscientiously followed, prevent a teacher from using her own initiative and originality?
5. What difficulties are involved in grouping the pupils of a rural school in five divisions instead of into grades?

PROBLEMS

1. Compare a modern course of study for rural schools with one of twenty years ago.
2. Compare several courses of study with reference to their relative helpfulness to teachers.
3. Enumerate the benefits to the teacher of a good course of study.
4. Compare as to content the courses of study of several neighboring States with the one in your own State.
5. Give an example of a modern scientifically organized course of study.

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4. Phillips: *Fundamentals in Elementary Education*, Chapters XIV and XV.
5. Bennett: *School Efficiency*, Chapter XI.
6. Barnes: *Rural School Management*, Chapter VIII.

CHAPTER X

THE DAILY PROGRAM

The daily program should be the teacher's general plan of daily work, by which she strives to accomplish the aims and purposes of the course of study. Through it she should endeavor, first, to distribute her time fairly among all of her pupils in all of their subjects, and second, to prevent loss of time and energy by providing for an orderly arrangement of the day's activities.

Making a Program.—The making of a program for any school is not an easy task. It is an especially difficult one for the rural teacher. Difficult because the two factors which largely determine the program vary greatly in rural schools. Those two factors are (1) the number of grades in the school and (2) the subjects required by the course of study. It is impossible, because of these variations, to give a "ready made" program that will meet exactly the conditions found in all schools. Certain factors, however, are constant, and should always be given consideration in the preparation of programs.

Factors in a Rural School.—To present the problem more concretely, we give the factors as the teacher of a rural school found them at the beginning of her winter term.

1. Twenty pupils from five to thirteen years of age, with one or more in each of the eight grades.

2. A course of study indicating what each pupil was to take.

3. Three hundred thirty minutes for recitations.

4. To apportion the time fairly (*a*) as to pupils, (*b*) as to subjects.

5. To adjust the length of the recitation periods to the age of the pupils and nature of the subjects.

6. To provide for an occupation program and to have the study period for a given subject follow immediately the recitation period for that subject.

7. To avoid having writing and drawing exercises come immediately after an intermission.

8. To provide for a variety of occupation and for intervals of relaxation.

9. To reduce the number of recitations to thirty or less.

Apportioning the Teacher's Time.—The first step in the making of a program is to properly apportion the teacher's time. Two things must be borne in mind by the teacher: first, to give to each grade its fair share of her time, and second, to properly apportion the time given to each grade among the six groups of studies according to their importance.

Most teachers have a preference for the work of certain grades. One prefers the primary work, another the more advanced grades. When all, or nearly all, of the grades are represented, it is important, then, that the teacher should not permit her personal preference to interfere with the time to which each grade is entitled.

Again, teachers usually have a preference for certain subjects within the grades. If the time apportioned to each grade is not carefully divided among the six groups of subjects, the teacher is in danger of devoting too much time to those which she most prefers. In the lower grades the language group should be given the

greater part of the time. It constitutes the tools with which the pupil masters the other subjects. As we proceed higher in the grades, the language group should each year give way more and more to the other groups, especially history and science. The programs given in this chapter should serve as a guide as to the relative importance of each group in each grade.

Reducing Number of Classes.—In many rural schools the problem of reducing the number of recitations per day is a very difficult one. Several solutions of this problem are offered. It remains for the teacher to apply one or more of them to her own individual situation.

(1) *By the Use of General Lessons.*—The work in writing, drawing or music can be presented in general lessons to the entire school. The first three or four grades can be combined for general lessons in the content subjects. The industrial or hand work can also be given to the whole school at one time, although the work should be graded as to difficulty.

(2) *By Combining Classes or Grades.*—Pupils in the first year may be combined with those of the second year in nature study or in hand work. Pupils in the second and third years may be combined in arithmetic. Classes in third, fourth, and fifth years may be combined in spelling. The seventh and eighth grade pupils may recite together in arithmetic, reading, orthography, history, geography or physiology.

No fixed rule for combining classes can be followed. Classes that are nearest equal in ability should be combined. In one school it may be desirable to combine the seventh and eighth grades in reading; in another school the sixth and seventh, and in still another the sixth, seventh, and eighth.

(3) *By Alternating General Lessons, Classes, Subjects, or Even Dropping Out a Whole Year of the Course.*—(*a*) As to *general lessons.* The teacher *may alternate writing with drawing*, or she may give three general lessons a week in writing and two in drawing. Some subjects like the manual arts may have to be crowded into one or two lessons a week.

(*b*) As to *classes.* If the teacher finds it necessary to maintain small classes in the eighth year in order that pupils may finish the course, she *may have some of these classes recite on alternate days.* This plan should *not be used in the lower grades in any of the leading branches.*

(*c*) As to *subjects.* Sometimes it will be best to *drop a subject for the first half of the year and take it up for the second half of the year, or when some other subject in the same division has been completed.* In such cases, longer lessons must be assigned, for pupils must complete the subject in shorter time. But such intensive study in fewer branches will permit longer periods for recitation and will secure better results than to require pupils to take many subjects, with shorter lessons and the time of recitation limited.

(*d*) As to *years of the course.* In Illinois and some other States, elaborate plans of alternating the different years of the course have been worked out. By this system, the work of an entire year of the course, or all the work except one or two leading subjects, may be dropped out for one year, thus reducing the number of classes and increasing the length of the recitation period. The next year, classes are organized in the studies that have been dropped, and no new classes are formed for the previous year's work. In beginning such a plan,

classes must be formed in all the subjects of the first year, but in the second year's work, new classes are organized in reading, numbers, and spelling only. In the following year new classes are organized in all the subjects of the second year, but no new classes are formed in the first year except reading, numbers, and spelling.

(4) By *Relating of Subjects.*—(*a*) *Within the same group.* The course of study consists of six groups of closely related subjects, as already explained. Correlation within these groups is always possible. *Language and reading may be combined in one class.* Other good opportunities for teaching two subjects in one class are *phonics with reading in the first year*; *reading with language or spelling in the second year*; *construction work with household arts in the sixth year*; *reading with orthography in the eighth year.*

(*b*) *Correlation Between Studies in Different Groups.* Each year of the course affords excellent opportunities for such correlation. Classes can be combined in *nature study and agriculture, numbers and handwork, oral history and language, drawing and manual arts or construction work, geography and agriculture.*

With all these different methods by which the number of classes may be diminished, there is little excuse for permitting the use of a program of thirty classes even in our largest rural schools.

Length of Recitation Period.—The length of the recitation period should be regulated by the age of the pupils and the nature and difficulty of the subject. Primary pupils cannot give close attention for long periods of time. Several short periods of ten or fifteen minutes are better than one period so long that the pupil's interest in the subject-matter lags. With the

more advanced classes the ability of the pupils in any particular subject may have to be given consideration. If a teacher finds that her eighth grade is unusually deficient in arithmetic, she should give special attention to that subject in that class.

Occupation Program.—A good program provides for study and seat work between recitations. Pupils in the rural schools spend only a small part of the day in recitations. It is the duty of the teacher, therefore, to direct the pupils' studying by placing before them a carefully prepared program of occupation. Disorder in school frequently results from a pupil's idleness. When the pupils have definitely assigned work for each study period they are less likely to get into mischief. For the primary pupils the employment should consist largely of play and different forms of handwork.

In most of the subjects pupils should study the advanced lesson immediately after the recitation, and again just before the next recitation in that subject. If a lesson has been well taught and the assignment well made, the pupil's interest in the subject should be such that he will immediately want to proceed with the preparation of his next lesson. The few minutes just before the recitation should be used to review the previous preparation.

Writing and Drawing.—The period for formal instruction in writing and drawing should never follow an intermission or period of physical activity. These exercises require steady nerves. If the teacher uses the intermission period for the purpose for which it is intended, that is, play and exercise, the pupils will not be in the best physical condition for work that requires fine muscular control.

Variety of Occupation and Intervals of Relaxation.—A variety of occupation should be provided, especially for the younger pupils. Their interest in any one line of activity cannot be held very long. Frequent changes in the nature of their work will prevent restlessness and disorder. Intervals of relaxation also help to maintain interest and to keep up a good spirit. The attention of pupils is usually best during the periods immediately following the convening of school, either in the morning or after intermissions. As the pupils concentrate upon their work after the intermission they become mentally fatigued. A few minutes for a good game will do much to relieve this situation. In one of the programs that follow provision is made for a three-minute recreation period. This might profitably be given during each of the quarter-day sessions.

Program Posted and Followed.—The recitation and the occupation program should be printed or written in large legible letters. A piece of cardboard about twenty-two by twenty-eight inches in size may well be used for each half day's program. These cards should then be placed on one of the walls of the schoolroom in such a position that the program can be read from any part of the room. After the program has been posted it should be very strictly followed. There will be many strong temptations to "run over time." If the lesson is well taught the pupils may say: "Oh, don't let us stop now." Again, there will be times when the teacher is tempted to change the program because she has visitors. All such changes should be avoided. If it is important to have a program, it is equally as important to adhere to it. At the close of the term the teacher should leave a copy of her program for her successor.

A Suggested Program.—The following suggested program for a one-teacher school is reproduced from a bulletin published by the Extension Division of the Iowa State Teachers' College. It represents the combined judgment of a group of people who have had unusual opportunities for studying this problem in the actual operation of a number of one-teacher schools. The program follows the plan of organization for a one-teacher school given in the preceding chapter.

SUGGESTED PROGRAM FOR A ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL

FORENOON							
TIME	MIN.	RECITATIONS	STUDY AND OCCUPATION				
			E Div.	D Div.	C Div.	B Div.	A Div.
9.00	5		Opening Exercises				
9.05	10	E Reading		Reading	Directed Library Reading	Hygiene or Civics	Hygiene or Civics
9.15	10	D Reading	Reading, Seat Work		Directed Library Reading	Hygiene or Civics	Hygiene or Civics
9.25	10	3 Reading	Reading, Seat Work	Reading	4 Directed Library Reading	Hygiene or Civics	Hygiene or Civics
9.35	15	4 Reading	Hand Work	Reading, Seat Work	3 Reading	Reading, Agri. on Friday	Spelling
9.50	15	A Reading or Agriculture	Board Work, Writing	Reading, Seat Work	Reading	Reading, Agri. on Friday	

10.05	15	B Reading or Agriculture	Play Corner	Board Work, Writing	4 Reading 3 Seat Work		Reading
10.20	10	E or D Phonics	(or Play Corner)		4 Reading 3 Seat Work	Spelling	Reading
10.30	10	(P. Ed.)					
10.40	5	Recess					
10.45	10	E Numbers		Numbers	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
10.55	10	D Numbers	No., Brd. Work		Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
11.05	10	C Arithmetic	No., Seat Work	No., Seat Work		Arithmetic	Arithmetic
11.15	15	B Arithmetic	Play Corner	No., Seat Work	Arithmetic		Arithmetic
11.30	15	A Arithmetic	Drawing	Drawing	Hand Work	Arithmetic	
11.45	15	Writing	All Divisions Mondays, Wednesdays, Fridays				
		Drawing and Hand Work	All Divisions Tuesdays, Thursdays				
12.00 to 1.00		Supervised Lunch* and Supervised Play					

*Hot dish for lunch may be prepared partly before school and at such times as teacher may direct.

SUGGESTED PROGRAM FOR A ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL—CONTINUED

AFTERNOON							
TIME	MIN.	RECITATIONS	STUDY AND OCCUPATION				
			E Div.	D Div.	C Div.	B Div.	A Div.
1.00	10	Music	All				
1.10	10	E Reading		Reading	Free Lib. Work	Free Library or Reference Reading	Geog. or History
1.20	10	D Reading	Reading, Seat Work		Free Lib. Work		Geog. or History
1.30	10	4 Geog. or History	Reading, Seat Work	Reading	3 Seat Work		Geog. or History
1.40	10	B Geog. or History	Hand Work	Seat Work	4 Geog. or History		Reference Read.
1.52	3	Recreation Period. (Active Game)					

AFTERNOON							
TIME	MIN.	RECITATIONS	STUDY AND OCCUPATION				
			E Div.	D Div.	C Div.	B Div.	A Div.
1.55	15	A Geog. or History	Board Work	Hand Work	4 Geog. or History 3 Hand Work	Geog. or History	
2.10	10	C Spelling	Play Corner	Sand-Table		Geog. or History	Spelling
2.20	10	A or B Spelling	Play Corner	Sand-Table	Spelling		Spelling
2.30	15	Recess. Supervised Play for All					
2.45	15	General Lessons			(or 4 Reference Reading)	Geog. or History (Fri., Lib.)	Free Library
3.00	10	B Language	Seat Work	Seat Work	(Seat Work from Gen. Lessons)		Free Library
3.10	10	A Language-Grammar	Seat Work	Seat Work		Language	
3.20	10	C Language	Play Corner	Board Work		Language	Lang.-Gram.
3.30	10	E and D Oral Language			Language	Language	Lang.-Gram.
3.40	10	B Hygiene or Civics	Sand-Table	Seat Work	Language		Lang.-Gram.
3.50	10	A Hygiene or Civics	Sand-Table	Play Corner	Language	Library	

The Illinois Program.—Another suggested rural school program is the one issued by the Illinois Department of Public Instruction. It is based upon the Illinois State Course of Study, and conforms to the plan for alternation of subjects by years as provided in that course.

DAILY PROGRAM FOR INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION AND DIRECTED STUDY
ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL

(Using Maximum Alternation, 1922–23)

FIRST YEAR'S WORK	COURSE OF STUDY	SUBJECTS	INDIVIDUAL AND CLASS INSTRUCTION	GRADES	TIME	BEGIN	DIRECTED STUDY
	254		General Exercises	All	10	9.00	
1	32	Reading	Class Instruction Daily	1	10	9.10	Direct Study
2	62	Reading		2	10	9.20	20 Minutes
3	76	Reading	Class Instruction when Desired	3–4	10	9.30	Recitations
5	123	Reading		5–6	10	9.40	50 Minutes
7	178	Reading		7–8	10	9.50	
	99–154 220	Spelling	Daily	3 to 8	20	10.00	
			Directed Play	All	15	10.20	15
1	50	Numbers	Class Instruction Daily	1	10	10.35	Direct Study
2	68	Numbers		2	10	10.45	
3	86	Arithmetic		3	10	10.55	30 Minutes
4	108	Arithmetic	Class Instruction when Desired	4	10	11.05	Recitations
5	137	Arithmetic		5–6	15	11.15	
7	193	Arithmetic		7–8	15	11.30	55 Minutes

	119–148 197	Writing	Daily	All	15	11.45	
		Lunch	Play	All	60	12.00	60
			General Exercises	All	10	1.00	
1	39	Reading, Language		1	10	1.10	Direct Study
2	64	Reading, Language	Class Instruction Daily	2	10	1.20	25 Minutes
3	82	Language		3–4	10	1.30	
5	134	Language		5–6	10	1.40	Recitations
7	184	Grammar	Class Instruction when Desired	7	10	1.50	
8	222	Grammar		8	10	2.00	50 Minutes
7	207	Phy., Civics		7–8	15	2.10	
			Directed Play	All	15	2.25	
1	71	Reading and Construction Work		1	10	2.40	Direct Study
2	71		Class Instruction Daily	2	10	2.50	
3	111	Home Geography		3–4	10	3.00	30 Minutes
5	141	Geography		5–6	15	3.10	
6	167	History		6	10	3.25	Recitations
7	197	Geography	Class Instruction when Desired	7–8	10	3.35	50 Minutes
7	201	History		7 8	15	3.45	
		Dismissal				4.00	

DAILY PROGRAM FOR INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION AND DIRECTED STUDY
ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL
(Using Minimum Alternation, 1922–23)

SECOND YEAR'S WORK	COURSE OF STUDY	CLASSES	INDIVIDUAL AND CLASS INSTRUCTION	GRADES	TIME	BEGIN	DIRECTED
	255		General Exercises	All	10	9.00	
3	76	Reading	Class Instruction when Desired	3	10	9.10	Direct Study 20 Minutes Recitations 40 Minutes
4	96	Reading		4	10	9.20	
5	123	Reading		5–6	10	9.30	
7	178	Reading		7–8	10	9.40	
1	32	Reading	Class Instruction Daily	1	10	9.50	
2	62	Reading		2	10	10.00	
		Spelling		All	15	10.10	
			Directed Play	All	15	10.25	15
4	108	Arithmetic	Class Instruction when Desired	4	10	10.40	Direct Study 20 Minutes
5	137	Arithmetic		5	10	10.50	
6	160	Arithmetic		6	10	11.00	
7	193	Arithmetic		7	10	11.10	
8	232	Arithmetic		8	10	11.20	
1	50	Numbers	Class Instruction Daily	1	10	11.30	Recitations 60 Minutes
2	68	Numbers		2	10	11.40	
3	86	Arithmetic		3	10	11.50	

		Lunch	Play	All	60	12.00	60
5	134	Language	Class Instruction when Desired	5	10	1.00	Direct Study 25 Minutes
6	156	Language		6	10	1.10	
7	184	Grammar		7	10	1.20	
8	222	Grammar		8	10	1.30	
7	207	Phys. and Civics		7 8	10	1.40	
1	39	Reading and Language	Class Instruction Daily	1	7	1.50	Recitations 65 Minutes
2	64	Reading and Language		2	8	1.57	
3	82	Language		3–4	10	2.05	
		Writing		All	15	2.15	
			Directed Play	All	15	2.30	15
1	71	Reading and Construction Work	Class Instruction Daily	1	7	2.45	Direct Study 25 Minutes
2	71			2	8	2.52	
3	111	Home Geography		3–4	10	3.00	
5	141	Geography	Class Instruction when Desired	5–6	10	3.10	Recitations 50 Minutes
6	167	History		6	10	3.20	
7	197	Geography		7–8	15	3.30	
7	201	History		7–8	15	3.45	
		Dismissal				4.00	

RURAL SCHOOL PROGRAMS FROM OTHER STATES

From the Minnesota Course of Study

DAILY PROGRAM OF RECITATION AND STUDY FOR AN UNGRADED ELEMENTARY SCHOOL WITH EIGHT GRADES

Recitation Program			Study Program for Each Grade							
Period	Time	Recitation	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV	Grade V	Grade VI	Grade VII	Grade VIII
9.00–9.10	10	Opening Exercises (All)	Monday, Citizenship. Tuesday, Nature Study and Agriculture. Wednesday and Thursday, Hygiene. Friday, Current Events							
9.10–9.20	10	Reading I		Reading and Word Study	Word Study	Dictionary Work	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic *
9.20–9.30	10	Reading and Word Drill II	Sentence Building		Reading	Reading	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Arithmetic
9.30–9.50	20	*Arithmetic VII and VIII	Sentence Build'g or Counting	Seat Work Based on Reading	Reading	Reading	Arithmetic	Arithmetic		
9.50–10.00	10	†Reading[4] III and IV History[1] III and IV	Counting	Seat Work Based on Reading			Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Spelling or History	Spelling or History
10.00–10.05	5	Phonics I		Seat Work Based on Reading	Spelling or Arithmetic	Spelling or Arithmetic	Spelling	Spelling	Spelling or History	Spelling or History
10.05–10.20	15	†Arithmetic V and VI	Seat Work Based on Phonics	Arithmetic	Spelling or Arithmetic	Spelling or Arithmetic			Spelling or History	Spelling or History
10.20–10.30	10	Spelling III, IV, V[3] or VI, VII, VIII[2]	Project Work	Arithmetic						

10.30–10.45	15	RECESS							
10.45–10.55	10	†Arithmetic I and II			Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Reading or History	Reading or History	History	History
10.55–11.15	20	†History[3] VII and VIII or Civics[2] VII and VIII	Seat Work Based on Numbers	Write Numbers at Blackboard	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	Reading or History	Reading or History		
11.15–11.30	15	†Arithmetic III and IV	Drawing or Sand Table	Reading			Reading or History	Reading or History	Grammar	Grammar
11.30–11.45	15	Reading[4] V and VI or History[1] V and VI	Excused	Excused	Reading	Geography			Grammar	Grammar
11.45–12.00	15	Penmanship[4] or Drawing[1]	Excused	Excused						
NOON INTERMISSION										

* Where the eighth grade class studies Geography some of the Arithmetic must be assigned for home work.

† There are different classes held at the same time. They are not doing the same work. Each grade does its own work, with oral and written work on alternate days, or with the teacher dividing her time between them during the recitation.

DAILY PROGRAM OF RECITATION AND STUDY—CONTINUED

Recitation Program			Study Program for Each Grade							
Period	Time	Recitation	Grade I	Grade II	Grade III	Grade IV	Grade V	Grade VI	Grade VII	Grade VIII
1.00–1.10	10	Music—Monday, Wednesday, Friday—All Tuesday Grades 1, 2, 3, 4 Thursday, Grades 5, 6, 7, 8	Reading Seat Work	Reading	Reading	Study Tables	Geography	Geography	Grammar	Grammar
1.10–1.20	10	Reading I		Reading	Reading	Study Tables	Geography	Geography	Grammar	Grammar
1.20–1.40	20	Grammar VII and VIII	Seat Work Based on Reading	Reading	Reading	Study Tables	Geography	Geography		
1.40–1.50	10	†Reading II and III	Project Work			Geography	Geography	Geography	Reading or Hygiene	Reading or Hygiene
1.50–2.05	15	Geography V and VI	Writing at the Board	Seat Work Based on Reading	Geography	Geography			Reading or Hygiene	Reading or Hygiene
2.05–2.20	15	Reading[3] VII and VIII Hygiene[2] VII and VIII	Excused to Play	Excused to Play	Geography	Geography	Library Reading	Library Reading		
2.20–2.30	10	Geography III and IV	Excused to Play	Excused to Play			Library Reading	Library Reading	Geography	Geography
2.30–2.45	15	Recess								

2.45–2.55	10	Language I and II			Language	Language	Library Reading	Library Reading	Geography	Geography
2.55–3.10	15	Language III and IV	Seat Work Based on Language	Seat Work Based on Language			Library Reading	Library Reading	Geography	Geography
3.10–3.20	10	Reading I		Reading and Word Study	Project Work	Project Work	Language	Language	Geography	Geography
3.20–3.25	5	Phonics II	Seat Work Based on Reading		Project Work	Project Work	Language	Language	Geography	Geography
3.25–3.45	20	Geography VII and VIII	Dismissed	Dismissed	Project Work	Project Work	Language	Language		
3.45–4.00	15	Language V and VI	Dismissed	Dismissed	Project Work	Project Work			Arithmetic	Arithmetic

Adapted by Mrs. Neumann, Teacher Training Department, St. Paul, from programs submitted.

This program is planned to indicate recitation and study periods for each class for those ungraded schools which have large enrolments in every year of the work. It is arranged to provide study periods immediately preceding recitation periods. The study periods are suggestive. Where more or less time for the study of a subject is desirable, these periods may be altered to meet the need. The number of recitation periods may be reduced and the length of periods increased by the following alternations and combinations. The first Reading periods of Grades 1 and 2 may be combined into a 15-minute period with each grade doing its own work, thus giving an added 5 minutes for the Reading period of Grades 3 and 4. Geography, Grades 3 and 4, may be alternated with Language, thus eliminating a period and giving additional time for recitations.

The figures above the subjects under Recitation indicate the number of recitations per week.

Project and Seat Work may include such exercises as: Drawing on the Blackboard; Supplementary Reading; Modeling; Paper Cutting and Tearing; Making Booklets based on Reading and Language Work; Weaving; Making Toys; Making and Dressing Doll; Building with Sticks; Stringing Straws and Beads and all other forms of Construction Work.

First and Second Grade Penmanship may be taught in connection with Language and Board Work; Spelling in connection with Word Work.

Morals and Manners, Hygiene, Drawing, and Nature Study may be taught in connection with Language Work and Opening Exercises, Classes may be divided into two groups (3–4–5) and (6–7–8) for Spelling, the groups studying and reciting on alternate days.

The time on Friday from eleven to twelve and from three to four may be given over to Club Work and Industrial subjects, including Agriculture and Food Study, for Grades seven and eight.

Hot Lunch. Seventh and eighth grade pupils may start the preparation of the lunch under the supervision of the teacher.

FROM THE MISSOURI STATE COURSE OF STUDY

SUGGESTED DAILY PROGRAM FOR STUDY AND RECITATION, 1923–1924

BEGIN	TIME IN MINUTES	RECITATION PROGRAM	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS D YEARS 1–2	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS C YEARS 3–4	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS B YEARS 5–6	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS A YEARS 7–8
8.50	10	Opening exercises, Music, All				
9.00	20	A Arithmetic	Reading	Reading	Reading	
9.20	10	D Reading, 1st yr.	Reading, 2d yr.	Reading	Reading	Arithmetic
9.30	10	D Reading, 2d yr	Board Work, 1st yr.	Reading	Reading	Grammar
9.40	15	C Reading	Board Work		Reading	Grammar
9.55	15	B Reading	Reading	Arithmetic		Grammar
10.10	20	A Grammar	Play	Arithmetic	Reading	
10.30	10	RECESS				
10.40	10	D Reading, 1st yr.	Reading, 2d yr.	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	History and Gov't
10.50	10	D Read. and Spell., 2d yr.	Brd. Work, 1st yr.	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	History and Gov't
11.00	12	C Arithmetic, 3d yr.	Seat Work	Arithmetic, 4th yr.	Arithmetic	History and Gov't
11.12	13	C Arithmetic, 4th yr.	Seat Work	Nat. Study, 3d yr.	Arithmetic	History and Gov't
11.25	20	A History and Government	Read. and Numb.	Nature Study	Arithmetic	
11.45	15	B Arithmetic	Play	Nature Study		Agriculture
12.00		NOON				
1.00	5	Music, All				
1.05	12	C Nature Study	Nature Study		Agriculture	Agriculture
1.17	13	D Nat. Study and Numb.		Read., Lang., and Spell.	Agriculture	Agriculture
1.30	25	A and B. Agriculture	Board Work	Read., Lang., and Spell.		
1.55	20	Writing and Drawing				

FROM THE MISSOURI STATE COURSE OF STUDY—CONTINUED

SUGGESTED DAILY PROGRAM FOR STUDY AND RECITATION, 1923–1924

BEGIN	TIME IN MINUTES	RECITATION PROGRAM	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS D YEARS 1–2	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS C YEARS 3–4	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS B YEARS 5–6	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS A YEARS 7–8
2.15	10	RECESS				
2.25	15	C Read., Lang., and Spell.	Manual Work		History	Geography
2.40	15	A Geography	Manual Work	Manual Work	History	
2.55	15	B History and Hygiene	Manual Work	Manual Work		Reading and Spell.
3.10	10	D Story Period, 1st yr.	Language, 2d yr.	Manual Work	Lang. and Spell.	Read. and Spell.
3.20	10	D Story Period, 2d yr.	Language, 1st yr.	Manual Work	Lang. and Spell.	Read. and Spell.
3.30	20	A Reading and Spelling	Dismiss or Play	Dismiss or Play	Lang. and Spell.	
3.50	10	B Language and Spelling				Arithmetic
4.00		Dismiss				

FROM THE MISSOURI STATE COURSE OF STUDY

SUGGESTED DAILY PROGRAM FOR STUDY AND RECITATION, 1924–1925

BEGIN	TIME IN MINUTES	RECITATION PROGRAM	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS D YEARS 1–2	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS C YEARS 3–4	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS B YEARS 5–6	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS A YEARS 7–8
8.50	10	Opening exercises, Music, All				
9.00	20	A Arithmetic	Reading	Reading	Reading	
9.20	10	D Reading, 1st yr.	Reading, 2d yr.	Reading	Reading	Arithmetic
9.30	10	D Reading, 2d yr.	Brd. Work, 1st yr.	Reading	Reading	Grammar
9.40	15	C Reading	Board Work		Reading	Grammar
9.55	15	B Reading	Reading	Arithmetic		Grammar
10.10	20	A Grammar	Play	Arithmetic	Reading	
10.30	10	RECESS				
10.40	10	D Reading, 1st yr.	Reading, 2d yr.	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	History and Gov't.
10.50	10	D Read. and Spell., 2d yr.	Brd. Work, 1st yr.	Arithmetic	Arithmetic	History and Gov't.
11.00	12	C Arithmetic, 3d yr.	Seat Work	Arithmetic, 4th yr.	Arithmetic	History and Gov't
11.12	13	C Arithmetic, 4th yr.	Seat Work	Nat. Study, 3d yr.	Arithmetic	History and Gov't
11.25	20	A History and Government	Read. and Numb.	Nature Study	Arithmetic	
11.45	15	B Arithmetic	Play	Nature Study		Agriculture
12.00		NOON				
1.00	5	Music, All				
1.05	12	C Nature Study	Nature Study		Agriculture	Agriculture
1.17	13	D Nat. Study and Numb.		Read., Lang., and Spell.	Agriculture	Agriculture
1.30	25	A and B. Agriculture	Board Work	Read., Lang., and Spell.		
1.55	20	Writing and Drawing				

FROM THE MISSOURI STATE COURSE OF STUDY—CONTINUED

SUGGESTED DAILY PROGRAM FOR STUDY AND RECITATION, 1924–1925

BEGIN	TIME IN MINUTES	RECITATION PROGRAM	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS D YEARS 1–2	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS C YEARS 3–4	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS B YEARS 5–6	STUDY PROGRAM CLASS A YEARS 7–8
2.15	10	RECESS				
2.25	15	C Read., Lang., and Spell.	Manual Work		History	Physiology
2.40	15	A Geography	Manual Work	Manual Work	History	
2.55	15	B History and Geography	Manual Work	Manual Work		Read. and Spell.
3.10	10	D Story Period, 1st yr.	Language, 2d yr.	Manual Work	Lang. and Spell.	Reading and Spell.
3.20	10	D Story Period, 2d yr.	Language, 1st yr.	Manual Work	Lang. and Spell.	Read. and Spell.
3.30	20	A Reading and Spelling	Dismiss or play	Dismiss or play	Lang. and Spell.	
3.50	10	B Language and Spelling				Arithmetic
4.00		Dismiss				

TWO PROGRAMS IN ACTUAL USE IN CASS COUNTY, N. D.

PROGRAM NO. I

TIME	LENGTH OF PERIOD	GRADE	SUBJECT
9.00	15		Opening Exercises.
9.15	15	2	Reading.
9.30	10	3	Reading.
9.40	10	4	Arithmetic.
9.50	10	5	Arithmetic.
10.00	15	6	Arithmetic.
10.15	15	7	Arithmetic
10.30	15		Recess.
10.45	15	8	Arithmetic.
11.00	5	2	Phonics or Numbers.
11.05	10	3	Arithmetic.
11.15	15	7	Physiology.
11.30	15	4	Reading.
11.45	15	5	Reading.
12.00	60		Noon Intermission.
1.00	15	8	History
1.15	10	2	Reading.
1.25	10	3	Reading.
1.35	15	7	Agriculture.
1.50	10	4	Language.
2.00	15	5–6	Language (3), History (2).
2.15	15	8	Grammar.
2.30	15		Recess
2.45	10	2	Language or Word Drill.
2.55	10	3	Language or Word Drill.
3.05	10	4	Geography.
3.15	15	8	Civics.
3.30	10	5	Geography
3.40	15	7–8	Geography.
3.55	5		Spelling.

TWO PROGRAMS IN ACTUAL USE IN CASS COUNTY, N. D.

PROGRAM NO. 2

9.00	10		Opening Exercises.
9.10	15	6–7	Reading.
9.25	10	1B–1	Reading and Word Drill.
9.35	10	2	Reading.
9.45	15	3–4	Reading.
10.00	15	5	Reading and Agriculture.
10.15	15	7	Arithmetic (3), Grammar (2).
10.30	15		Recess.
10.45	10	1B–1	Reading and Phonics.
10.55	10	2	Reading (3), Numbers (2).
11.05	10	3	Arithmetic.
11.15	20	4–5	Arithmetic.
11.35	10	6	Arithmetic (3), U. S. History (2).
11.45	15	7	U. S. History (3), Civics (2).
12.00	60		Noon Intermission.
1.00	10		Opening Exercises.
1.10	15	1–2	Stories (3), Physiology (2).
1.25	10	All	Physical Culture (3), Drawing (2).
1.35	15	3–4	Language (3), Spelling (2).
1.50	15	5	Language (2), History (3).
2.05	10	All	Penmanship.
2.15	15	7	Physiology (3), Spelling (2).
2.30	15		Recess.
2.45	10	1B–1	Reading and Phonics.
2.55	10	2	Reading (3), Language (2).
3.05	15	3–4	Physiology (2), Geography (2).
3.20	20	5–6	Physiology (3), Geography (2).
3.40	20	7	Agriculture (2), Geography (3).
4.00			Dismissal.

DAILY PROGRAM FOR INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION AND DIRECTED STUDY, ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL

From the Department of Education, Washington, D. C.

YEAR'S WORK	SUBJECTS	WORK	GRADE	TIME	BEGIN	STUDY
	General	Exercises	All	10	9.00	60
1	Reading	Class Instruction	1	10	9.10	Min.
2	Reading	Daily	2	10	9.20	Class
3	Reading	Directed Study	3	10	9.30	10
4	Reading	Class Instruction	4	10	9.40	to
5 or 6	Reading	When	5–6	10	9.50	20
7 or 8	Reading	Desired	7–8	10	10.00	Min.
	Spelling		All	15	10.10	15
	Directed	Play	All	15	10.25	15
1	Numbers	Daily	1	10	10.40	Study
2	Numbers	Daily	2	10	10.50	80
3	Arithmetic		3	10	11.00	Min.
4	Arithmetic	When	4	10	11.10	Class
5	Arithmetic		5	10	11.20	10
6	Arithmetic	Desired	6	10	11.30	to
7	Arithmetic		7	10	11.40	20
8	Arithmetic		8	10	11.50	Min.
	Lunch	Play	All	60	12.00	
1	Read. & Lang.	Daily	1	7	1.00	Gram.
2	Read. & Lang.	Daily	2	8	1.07	40
3 or 4	Language	Daily	3–4	10	1.15	Min.
5	Language	When	5	10	1.25	
6	Language	Desired	6	10	1.35	Phys.
7	Grammar		7	10	1.45	30
8	Grammar		8	10	1.55	
7 or 8	Phys., Civics		7–8	10	2.05	
	Writing	Daily	All	15	2.15	
	Directed	Play	All	15	2.30	
1	Reading and	Daily	1	7	2.45	Geog.
2	Const. Work		2	8	2.52	40
3 or 4	Home Geog.		3–4	10	3.00	
5 or 6	Geography	When	5–6	10	3.10	Hist.
6	History	Desired	6	10	3.20	40
7 or 8	Geography		7–8	15	3.30	
7 or 8	History		7–8	15	3.45	
	Dismissal				4.00	

QUESTIONS

1. Why should not the third and fourth grades be combined in Reading?
2. Why is it better to have a pupil write a written lesson on the blackboard rather than on paper at his seat?
3. Parents sometimes criticise a teacher in the rural school because she does not have a pupil recite more often. What should be the teacher's attitude in such cases?
4. Why may several grades be combined in Spelling?
5. Should number work be omitted in the first grade?

PROBLEMS

1. Compare the number of minutes devoted to Reading in each grade in the daily programs in this chapter.
2. Give the number of minutes of recitation given to each grade in each program.
3. Make a recitation and occupation program for a rural school having grades 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, and 8.
4. Give arguments for having pupils study the next lesson immediately after the recitation.
5. Give arguments for and against a thirty-minute noon intermission and dismissing school at 3.30.

REFERENCES

1. Bennett: *School Efficiency*, Chapters XVI and XVII.
2. Strayer and Engelhardt: *The Classroom Teacher*, Chapter X.
3. Wilkinson: *Rural School Management*, Chapter XVIII.
4. Culter and Stone: *The Rural School, Its Methods and Management*, Chapter VIII.
5. Sears: *Classroom Organization and Control*, Chapter XII.
6. Colegrove: *The Teacher and the School*, Chapter XV.
7. Barnes: *Rural School Management*, Chapter XIX.

CHAPTER XI

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Intermission periods may be of great value in a school. Likewise they may be the source of unrest, immorality, and the center of poor citizenship training. Many teachers conduct good classroom work; they demand and secure good order during "school time," but apparently do nothing to continue this ideal during intermissions.

Teacher's Duty.—The teacher must plan intermissions as carefully as she plans for regular school work. She must consider all phases and possibilities of these intermissions and meet them with a definite program. The teacher must take an active part in these intermissions in order to teach co-operation, manners, citizenship, and many other virtues, by precept and example. A teacher must be a fun-maker and not a fun-destroyer. She may well be the inspiration of a well-directed play period, as well as the source of many hearty laughs.

Development Through Play.—All careful observers have noticed that those animals which play most when young make the most intelligent and resourceful adults. The larger the proportion of time spent in infancy, that is, in the play-time of life, the higher the creature rises in the scale of animal life. The young of earth worms, turtles, and barnyard fowls play but little; the adults remain on a very low plane of intelligence. The young of cats, dogs, foxes, and horses spend much time in play; the adults rise to a high plane of intelligence. The young of man has the longest play-time of all; the

adult is master over all. Evidently nature has found the playground the best school, and play a very important factor in making a man.

Play a Part of the School Program.—The above fact is rapidly being recognized in modern education. Ger-

SUPERVISED PLAY IN A ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL
Notice the teacher near the corner of the building

many requires that organized, supervised play be made a part of every common-school course. The larger cities of the United States are paying fabulous prices for land. Many school boards now require teachers to write into their contracts that they will spend a stipulated time in play with the children each day. Others are providing playground directors. Throughout the civilized world, the dwarfed intellects and weakened

bodies resulting from child-labor have created an insistent demand that all children be given an opportunity to play and grow into capable men and women.

Play and Exercise Not Synonymous.—Play and exercise are not synonymous terms. They are not of equal importance in education. Play is fun indulged in for its own sake. Play means, in addition to exercise, freedom to choose, freedom to plan and to execute the plan. Nature offers us free play as the very best school ever devised for developing the power of initiative—"the ability to originate, the aptitude to develop and undertake new enterprises."

Rural Children Do Not Know How to Play.—The writer's experience on many school playgrounds leads him to believe that the children in America who have the least aptitude for play, and who have had the least opportunity to develop by it, are the children on the farm. Parents in the country many times erroneously believe that the work of the farm and the home will furnish all the physical exercise necessary to the growing child. It is true that home and farm duties, those "chores" of fond remembrance, take a very valuable part in the education of country boys and girls; but it also is true that they need the opportunity to plan and originate new enterprises and execute them freely on the playground to develop their powers of initiative and self-reliance.

Teacher a Play Leader.—The rural teacher who recognizes the important part that play has in education will plan her daily work so that she will be free to spend noon and recess periods with the children on the playground. The teacher who knows some good games adapted to rural school conditions, and who shows skill

and enthusiasm in playing them with the children, soon becomes the natural leader on the playground. Close acquaintance and cordial relationships between teacher and pupils follow. Curtis, the playground expert, well says: "The familiarity of the playground does not breed contempt unless the teacher is contemptible." A teacher may safely join in the play if she assumes equal leadership when school calls.

By-Products of Supervised Play.—The close acquaintance and cordial relationship which follow when the teacher has become captain on the playground enable the teacher to gather about herself all the pupils of her school that they may enjoy together the development which comes from well-directed, enthusiastic, free play. Pupils thus happily engaged on the playground with their teacher find no time for immoral thoughts or deeds. Bickering and quarrelling and neighborhood gossip, which sometimes disrupt a school, cease. The teacher returns to the schoolroom at the close of the play period to find renewed pleasure in instruction. Pupils return to their school work with renewed appetites for study; their excess energy has been turned into the right channel.

The wideawake teacher will discover leaders that she did not know existed when these children were in the schoolroom. On the playground leadership will appear, and the teacher can in many cases transfer this quality to the schoolroom.

The laggard and the bully may be discovered and each made to see his proper place in this social group. The laggard forgets his lazy attitude and the bully lines himself up in the game of "give and take" until all are happy to practise that greatest of virtues in society —*co-operation.*

Parents sometimes complain with reason that the evil which pupils learn from each other about the school grounds outweighs the good learned from the teacher in the schoolroom. No teacher can afford to use the recreation periods preparing school work, performing janitor service, or taking her personal ease. The teacher who is captain on the playground is making use of one of nature's educational forces to gain easy mastery over her school. A county superintendent said recently: "I consider the supervision and leadership of the teacher on the playground so important that in visiting schools I plan to reach the schools at recess or noon, and first of all I look to see whether the teacher is with the children on the playground."

Games Adapted to Age of Children.—On the rural school playground the teacher must be able to manage groups of different ages. She must have several games in mind for the various groups, and use some older trustworthy child to direct the games for the younger groups. The teacher should direct and take part in the older group games if possible, but greater success would follow if she could keep in touch generally with all games and play activities during intermissions. There are, however, many good games in which children of all ages may take part. These would be the proper kind to play in rural schools where the teacher may have difficulty in securing assistance from her pupils.

A normal child cares for different types of games at different periods of his development. As his powers develop he seeks instinctively the elements in play that will contribute to growth. When games are studied from this standpoint they fall into the following groups:

1. Games for children between four and six years:

(*a*) Plays in which there is much repetition.
(*b*) Plays involving impersonations.
(*c*) Games of simple chase (one chaser and one runner).
(*d*) Games of short duration.

2. Games for children between seven and twelve years:

(*a*) Games of longer duration than in first group.
(*b*) Games more complicated.
(*c*) Games which involve the choosing of sides.
(*d*) Games with less repetition.

3. Games for children between twelve and eighteen:

(*a*) Team games.
(*b*) Competitive forms of play.
(*c*) Games fostering team spirit.
(*d*) Games in which co-operation, skill, and loyalty make for success.

Characteristics of Good Games for Rural Schools.—A number of our best games, such as the great American game of baseball, for example, are not suited to the conditions in the average one-room rural school to-day. Baseball requires eighteen players. The average attendance in rural schools is less. The small children cannot well play baseball with the larger ones. Girls do not play the game so well as boys, because the hard ball injures their hands. Baseball cannot be played in the winter time, when games are most needed in the rural school. Football and basketball likewise fail to meet the needs of the rural school. Good rural school games will meet the following:

Must Be Suited for All Ages and Both Sexes.—Many games should permit the teacher to gather into the same group all the pupils of her school, large and small, boys

and girls. The game should be such that the parents will enjoy taking part when they visit the school or attend community-center meetings.

A Varying Number of Players.—The game should permit of a wide variation in the number of players. Some rural schools have five pupils; some have thirty. The game should be capable of accommodating an odd or an even number of players.

Out-of-Doors All Seasons of the Year.—The game should be of such a nature that it may be played out-of-doors with comfort during the fall, winter, or spring months. Games played in fresh outdoor air accomplish their purpose much better than games played in the dusty and less pure atmosphere of the schoolroom.

Limited Space.—Although the open country stretches away in every direction from the rural schoolhouses, many of these schools are greatly hampered for suitable playground space. Hills or lesser inequalities of surface, ditches, fences, trees, or buildings so reduce the area available for playground purposes in many schools that games must be played on a very limited space.

Inexpensive Equipment.—As many patrons have not yet come to a realization of the important part play may have in education, it is still difficult to secure funds to provide equipment for games in the rural schools. The school should buy the necessary play equipment. No equal expenditure of school funds will bring larger educational results.

Reasonable Safety.—While the game should permit of vigorous exercise, the players should be reasonably safe from danger of injury. Rough, strenuous games should not be played. Using hard baseballs, swings that are too high, and any equipment likely to be injurious should be avoided.

Fun: Game Played for Its Own Sake.—To secure the best educational results, the game should be one which the pupils enjoy playing for its own sake. It should permit the pupils to originate and execute the manœuvres of the game. It should take advantage of the instinct of rivalry. It should be free play, as contrasted with mechanical physical exercises to the count of a drill-master.

Equipment for Play

(1) An indoor baseball, costing from two dollars to five dollars, depending upon the quality, is perhaps one of the most useful pieces of apparatus for the rural school. This large, soft ball will displace the small, hard baseball, and can be used for many good team games.

(2) A *sand-pile* for the little folk should be placed in such a position that the teacher can supervise its activities to a certain extent during school hours. The little children might use it to advantage for short relaxation periods during nice weather.

(3) A volley ball and volley ball net, provided that the children are old enough to play the game.

(4) One or two low swings.

(5) Two low teeters.

(6) Bean-bags, can-rubbers for ring-toss games, sticks of wood for all-up-relay races, hoops for hoop-race relays, a twenty-five cent bat for indoor baseball.

(7) A home-made merry-go-round made out of the rear axle of an old discarded farm wagon. (Remove one wheel and the reach braces, and place in the ground the axle from which the wheel has been removed. Put it

in cement if possible. Then bolt planks on to the spokes of the wheel, which will rotate similarly to a merry-go-round.)

Administration

Physical education in rural schools can best be administered through: (1) Contest Games, (2) Athletic Efficiency Tests, (3) Correct Posture Tests, (4) Singing Games and Rhythmic Plays.

Contest games may be divided into two groups, viz.: games for outdoors and games for the schoolroom. The outdoor games should answer the characteristics mentioned on pages 217–218 in this chapter. The indoor games must necessarily be less noisy and capable of many changes to meet the existing conditions within the schoolroom. These indoor games should seldom be used on days when the weather is fine, for the ideal place in which to play games is outdoors.

Rural boys and girls very rarely have a chance to develop any skill in athletics. Many of them, in fact, never know whether they can run, jump, or throw a baseball better than any one else. The Athletic Efficiency Tests make it possible for girls and boys to compete in age and weight classes, not against each other, but against certain standards that have been worked out with thousands of boys and girls of similar ages and weights. This plan makes it possible for every healthy child to take part in certain activities suited to his physical ability and from year to year to see his own ability advance as he undertakes more advanced work.

Correct posture in standing and walking is very important in the development of strong, healthy bodies. Nothing will develop this more than the "Triple Tests"

as suggested by Miss Jessie Bancroft, in her book, *The Posture of School Children*, which will be found invaluable.

The æsthetic nature of the child needs development; his sense of rhythm and grace must receive expression. Rhythmic plays, singing games, and folk-dances have their place in such development. Miss Clark, in her book, *Physical Training for Elementary Schools*, says: "These rhythmic plays fill a place in the training of the body that can be supplied in no other way. Aside from the wonderful hygienic value and the development of rhythm and grace, they provide a simple mode of dramatic expression which is needed in our hurried commercial life."

Outdoor and Indoor Games

Games for playground and schoolroom must be considered in every rural school program. Below is a list of games which have been tried in the rural schools affiliated with the Iowa State Teachers' College and found to be very satisfactory.

The outdoor games have been given rather a complete analysis in order to help the teacher who has not had much experience or training in playground supervision.

Dodge Ball.—Played with indoor baseball. All the pupils may play. Players stand in a circle twenty to thirty feet in diameter, depending on the number and size of the players. One player goes into the circle. This is the position of honor. A player on the circle throws the ball at the player in center, who runs about to keep from being struck by the ball. If the ball misses the player in the center, some player on the circle oppo-

site the thrower catches the ball and throws at the player "in-center." When struck, the player "in-center" exchanges places with the successful thrower.

Points to be noted in the teaching of dodge ball.

Dodge ball cultivates skill in throwing, dodging, and catching. In addition, it is valuable in developing graceful, natural movement.

1. Catching must be emphasized most. Teach the players on the circle to be constantly alert whenever the ball is to be thrown toward them, that it may not find them asleep and go by uncaught.

2. Teach the girls to throw correctly. The professional baseball pitcher, if he throws with his right hand, stands with his left foot forward. As he throws he leans forward, shifting his body to his left foot, and puts the whole weight of his body behind the swing of his arm. Right-handed girls should not put the right foot forward when they try to throw. When they stand correctly they soon learn to throw nearly as well as boys.

3. There is an excellent opportunity in this game to develop originality and skill in trying to get the better of the other fellow both in throwing and in dodging.

4. The teacher should see that the circle is constantly maintained at the proper size.

5. No player should throw at the player "in-center" except while on the circle.

Long Ball.—Played with indoor baseball. Equipment needed: A light baseball bat, two bases easily made by stuffing sacks with excelsior or hay, and tying, mattress fashion. Place the bases from thirty to sixty feet apart, depending on the size and the skill of the players. All of the pupils may play.

Divide the players into two equal groups. Number

the players in each group 1, 2, 3, 4, etc. One team takes turn at bat; the other team takes the field. The team taking the field selects a pitcher, who stands half way between home plate and second base. He pitches the ball—ALWAYS UNDERHAND—to the catcher, who stands immediately behind the home base. The remaining players of the side taking the field arrange themselves in an elongated semicircle about the field. Players of the side at bat come up to bat in order of their numbers, beginning each inning after the first with the player whose number follows the number of the player who made the third out of the previous inning.

The batter stands on EITHER SIDE of the home base (not ON the base) as is most convenient in batting the ball.

There are no fouls in this game. Every time the batter, standing in his position, touches the pitched ball with the bat, the batter attempts to run to the base, and, if possible, returns to the home base.

The base runner may take any path he chooses in running to and from second base.

More than one base runner may remain on second base at the same time.

A pitched ball is considered a strike if it passes over the home base while the batter is in position, provided that the ball passes the batter at an elevation not above his shoulder nor below his knees.

If the catcher catches a third strike, the batter is out. If a third strike is not caught, the batter becomes a base runner.

A pitched ball which does not pass over home base, or higher than the shoulders or lower than the knees of the batter, and is not struck at by him, is called a ball.

Four balls entitle the batter to take his place on second base.

After the batter becomes a base runner he may be put out in the following ways:

1. By catching the ball he batted before it touches the ground.

2. By being hit by a thrown ball while attempting to run to, or return from, second base.

3. By being touched by the ball in the hands of an opposing player while running to, or returning from, second base.

4. By being struck by a batted ball. The return of a runner to home base after touching second base counts one score for his team.

More than one player may return home from second base at the same time.

No player may score on the play which results in the third out.

After three outs the teams exchange positions.

Nine innings constitute a game. Number ones may decide at the opening of the game on some other number of innings that is to constitute a game.

Points to emphasize in teaching the game of long ball:

1. Diagram the position of the various players on the blackboard and explain the duties of each before attempting to play the game out-of-doors.

2. Pitching must be done underhand. Catcher and fielders may throw overhanded.

3. By requiring the team in the field to take positions for the first inning as numbered on the diagram, *i. e.*, No. 1 pitcher, No. 2 catcher, No. 3 fielder, etc., and to move up to the position having the next higher number each succeeding inning, interest in the game will be

greatly increased, as each player will have an opportunity to play every position, and no player can selfishly continue to hold one of the better positions.

4. Any additional number of players necessary to accommodate the pupils of the school may be added to the semicircle of fielders.

5. Some one should be chosen to act as umpire, giving decisions on balls, strikes, outs, and necessary interpretations of the rules.

Indoor Baseball.—Played out-of-doors. Seven to nine players on a side. Equipment same as for long ball, with the addition of first and third bases. Playing field is a square, set cornerwise. The side of the square is about thirty feet. The exact distance depends on the size and skill of the players.

With the exception that a ball batted outside of the first or third base lines is a foul, the pitching and batting rules are the same as for long ball. A caught ball puts the batter out.

The manner of making put-outs is the same as for long ball, with the exception that a player may not be put out by being struck by a thrown ball.

Teams change positions after three outs, the same as in long ball.

Base runners in order to score must keep to the path between bases and touch all four bases in succession. But one runner may remain on the same base at the same time. The runner who batted last is entitled to first base, if he can reach it safely. The base runner ahead of him must move on if forced.

Select an umpire as in long ball.

Unless a different number of innings is agreed upon, nine will constitute a game.

Points to be emphasized in teaching indoor baseball:

1. Pitching is underhand.

2. Players bat in order of their numbers.

3. Shifting the players in the field into different positions each inning gives equal opportunity to all.

4. Keeping a player in the same position develops skill in playing that position.

5. The size of the playing field must be adapted to the available playground space and to the size and skill of the players.

6. The girls should be taught to throw correctly. (See dodge ball, above.)

7. If two of the best players are asked to "choose up" in selecting the teams to play indoor baseball, spice of contest is added.

Arch Ball.—May be played in the schoolhouse or out-of-doors.

Equipment: Two or three indoor baseballs, depending on the size of the school.

Divide the players into two or three equal groups, depending on the number.

Players in each group stand in column at convenient distances from each other.

The columns are placed parallel to each other, facing in the same direction.

Each leader holds an indoor baseball in both hands, extended above the head. At a given signal the ball is passed backward with both hands. The next player receives the ball with both hands and passes it backward over his head in the same fashion. The last player in the column to receive the ball runs to the head of the column as each player in the column takes one long step backward. This is continued until the leader of

one column returns to the head of the column again. This column is then declared winner. Much animation is displayed in this game.

Note: This is a splendid corrective exercise, provided that the ball is passed backward over the head with both hands, with the arms extended as far as possible.

If the umpire should detect any player passing the ball otherwise than backward overhead with both hands, the ball should be brought back and started again at the head of the column. Emphasize this point when first teaching the game. Insist on it.

*Volley Ball.**—Played out-of-doors. All the pupils may play.

Equipment: One volley ball, a light inflated rubber ball with a leather cover; one net, two feet wide and from twenty to twenty-four feet long. These may be ordered through the local dealer in athletic goods or purchased directly from catalog houses. The ball will cost from three dollars to eight dollars, depending on quality. The net costs one dollar to three dollars. Nets may be made as part of the manual training work.

The ball and the net should be purchased out of the school funds and become a part of the play equipment belonging to the district.

Stretch the net horizontally so that the top will be about one foot higher than the head of the tallest player.

Lay off a square court on each side of the net (20 x 20). To mark the boundaries of each court, dig a small trench and fill it with ashes or sand, or pin pieces of white cardboard at the corners of the square.

* Instructor must draw diagram on blackboard to explain this game.

Divide the players into two teams. Arrange the players on each team on their respective courts, facing the net, as shown by numbered positions on the courts.

If team (A) is to serve the ball first, the player standing in position (1) passes to the point (X), near the middle of the back row, to serve. At the same time players in front row shift one position to the left; a player in the second row steps forward into the vacant position in front row; the players in second row shift one position to the right, a player from the third row filling the vacancy. The players in the third row shift one place to the left. When the player finishes serving, he takes the last position in the back row.

A shift like this is made by a team every time its player from position (1) is called to serve the ball. This gives each player a chance to play every position. This feature adds greatly to the fairness and interest of the game.

The player serving tosses the ball into the air with one hand and bats it over the net with the other. The served ball must not strike outside the bounds of the opponents' court. One trial is allowed to server. If he fails, the ball passes to the opponents, and number (1) on that team serves the ball.

When the ball is served over the net within bounds, the opponents try to bat it back over the net by striking it with the open hand. If they fail, and the ball touches the ground, the team serving the ball scores one point. The same player continues to serve as long as he continues to score.

Should the opponents bat the ball back over the net so that it touches the ground within bounds of the

server's court, the side serving loses the ball, and the other team serves. Only the team which is serving the ball can score.

The members of each team attempt to keep the ball in the air by striking it with the open hand while it is on their side of the net, and to drive it to some point on their opponents' court where it may most readily touch the ground.

Each player is free to move about in his position, to face either way, and to strike the ball with one or both hands.

Striking the ball with the closed fist or catching the ball forfeits the game to the other team.

Should the members of either team (when serving) strike the ball out of bounds, the ball passes to the other team to serve.

A score is counted when the ball is struck out of bounds by an opponent of the server.

Pass the Hoop.—Equipment: Two or more ordinary wooden hoops wound with cloth. May be played inside or out-of-doors.

Divide the players into two or more equal groups. Arrange in parallel columns as for arch ball.

The leader of each column holds a hoop in the left hand above the head, and the right arm close to body.

At a given signal the hoop is slipped down over the body with the left hand alone. The player steps out of the hoop without allowing it to touch the floor. He then passes it backward over the head with the left hand to the next player behind him, who receives it in the left hand. The last player in the column to receive the hoop runs to the head of the column and passes himself through the hoop as described above. When the leader

of one column returns to the head of the column, his column is declared winner.

Note: Insist that the players do not touch the hoop with the right hand and that the hoop be not permitted to touch the floor. If a player violates either of these rules, he must pass himself through the hoop again.

This game may be varied by passing the hoop with the right hand instead of the left, or by placing a column of boys in competition with a column of girls and requiring the boys to pass the hoops over their feet upward, while the girls pass the hoop over the head downward.

Black and White.—Equipment: A piece of tin, or cardboard about three inches square, colored black on one side and white on the other.

Divide the players into two nearly equal groups. Name one group the blacks and the other the whites.

Arrange two parallel goal lines facing each other about sixty feet apart. Assign one goal to the blacks and the other to the whites.

The umpire stands half-way between the goals. The blacks and whites advance in parallel lines until the distance between the lines can just be spanned by the outstretched arms of the umpire.

The umpire tosses the black-and-white disc into the air so that it will fall between the lines.

If the black side comes up, the blacks run to their goal and the whites chase them. All black players touched before reaching their goal by any player of the whites must go on to the white side when the sides advance for the next try.

Should the white side of the disc come up the procedure is reversed.

The game continues until one side has taken all the players from the other.

Note: This is an excellent game to develop alertness in the pupils and shorten their reaction time.

All-Up-Relay.—Select a level place on the playground. Draw two circles on the ground, each eighteen inches in diameter and six inches apart. Ten feet away draw two more circles the same as above. Twenty feet from each pair of circles draw a base line.

Divide players into two groups as nearly equal in playing ability as possible. It adds interest to appoint leaders and let them choose sides.

Each leader stands behind the base line facing his pair of circles. The remaining members of his team stand behind the leader in single file.

Three sticks of stove wood, each one foot long and about three inches in diameter, with ends sawed off squarely are placed on end in one of the circles before each team.

At a given signal the leader of each team runs forward, takes the sticks from one circle, places them on end in the other circle, and runs back to "touch off" the person heading the column, who has moved up to the base line.

Upon being "touched off" each runner in succession places the sticks in the other circle, and after "touching off" the runner who follows him, he takes his place back of the base line in such a position as not to interfere with the runners.

The team wins which first succeeds in getting all its runners back over the base line.

Note: See that the surface of the ground within the circles is level and smooth.

Should the sticks fall down, the player who placed them must stand them up again and return across the base line before the next player following him may cross the base line.

Indoor Games

The teacher will need some good indoor "bad weather" games. While many games might be given, the following, which have been tried and found to be very good, are suggested.

The beginning teacher may consider that such games will be too noisy for the schoolroom. It is true that noisy, boisterous actions ought to be prohibited in the schoolroom, but if the teacher supervises these games, if the windows are opened, and the children understand that the playing is a special privilege, because of weather conditions, they will usually co-operate admirably. Care must be taken, of course, to select games that will not tend to destroy property. It is an excellent place for the teacher and pupils to practise self-control.

I Say Stoop

Description: Class stands before seats in schoolroom. Teacher or leader is in front of class. Teacher says quickly: "I say stoop!" She immediately stoops (a sort of courtesy), and rises again. If teacher says: "I say stand!" at the same time stooping herself, the players should remain standing. The class must do as the teacher says, not as she does. Any one making a mistake must sit down.

Basketball No. 1

(Schoolroom or playground)

Material: Bean-bags or indoor baseballs.

Description: Have equal number of pupils in each row. Mark off a starting line, with chalk, side of front row of desks; another several feet nearer the front wall. One child in each line is chosen as basket, and stands back of line with arms held shoulder high in front, forming a circle. At a signal first pupil rises and toes starting line, throws ball into living basket, runs and gets ball, and passes it, after having seated himself, to next child behind, who immediately rises and runs to line and throws, etc. Each "basket" made scores two points a row, and the row which gets through first scores five points.

Cat and Mice

(Schoolroom)

Description: One player chosen to be cat hides behind or under teacher's desk or a chair. (Suggestion: Select one who has done particularly good work.) After cat is hidden, teacher beckons to five or six other players, who creep softly up to the desk or chair, and, when all are assembled, scratch on it with their fingers, to represent nibbling of mice, who save themselves only by getting back to their holes (seats). If a mouse is caught, the cat changes place with him for the next round. If no mouse can be caught, the same cat may continue, or the teacher may at her own discretion choose another. Choose different mice each time. Have mice take long routes to seats to add sport to game and to give the cat a chance.

Bird-Catcher

(Schoolroom—Playground)

Description: Two opposite corners are marked off at one end of ground or room; one for the nest for the birds and the other as a cage. Mother bird is chosen, who takes her position in the nest. Two other players take the parts of bird-catchers and stand midway between nest and cage. Rest of players in seats, if in a schoolroom; or beyond the line at farther end of ground, called a forest, if outdoors. All these players should be named for birds. A row, if in a schoolroom, or a small group if outdoors, may be named for some bird. If inside, have the players change places so that all the sparrows or all the bluebirds will not fly from same locality. Mother bird calls the name of a bird, and then the players bearing that name run from forest to nest. The bird-catchers try to intercept them. If a bird is caught, it is put in the cage; but a bird is safe if it reaches the nest. To make the game more interesting, have birds dodge and take circuitous routes to the nest.

Blackboard Relay Race

(Schoolroom)

Description: Have an even number in each row. A piece of chalk is given to the last player in each row, all of whom at a given signal run forward and write on blackboard at front of room a word suitable to begin a sentence, a number, or whatever the teacher designates. Each returns at once to seat, handing chalk to next player, who at once runs forward and writes a word after the first one, to which it must bear a suitable relation, or answer, etc. The last player must end the

sentence and punctuate, etc. Score 25 points to row returning first, 25 points for spelling, 25 points for writing, 25 points for grammatical construction, capitalization, and punctuation, or similarly for any other designated task.

Automobile Race

(Schoolroom or Playground)

Description: Have even numbers of players in each row. Have each row name itself for a make of automobile. Number rows, and every other row plays. At a signal the first one in even rows rises to right, runs around front of his desk, up other aisle to back, and down right side to his seat. As soon as he is seated, the next one rises at right, runs around front of desk, and up the aisle, etc. The row whose last player is seated first wins. Next the odd rows play, and finally the two winning rows play to see which is the winning car.

This game may be played outdoors by having players sit on ground with *wide* space between rows, thus allowing all rows to play at once.

Squirrel and Nut

(Schoolroom)

10 to 60 players.

All the pupils but one sit at their desks with heads bowed on the arms as though sleeping, but each with a hand outstretched. The odd player, who is the squirrel, and carries a nut, runs on tip-toe up and down through the aisles, and at his own discretion drops the nut into one of the waiting hands. The player who gets the nut at once jumps up from his seat and chases the squirrel, who is safe only when he reaches his seat.

Should the squirrel get caught before he reaches his nest (seat), he must be squirrel the second time.

It is scarcely necessary to say that the other players wake up to watch the chase.

Tag the Wall Relay

(Schoolroom)

10 to 60 players.

The players should all be seated, an even number in each row of seats. At a signal the last player in each line runs forward and tags the front wall. As soon as this player is out of the aisle, the other players all move backward one seat. This leaves the front seat vacant, and the runner having touched the wall, returns immediately and takes this vacant front seat. As the player sits, he raises his hand as a signal for the player who is now the last one in the line to run forward, the line moving backward one place as soon as he is out of the aisle. He, in turn, having touched the wall, takes the vacant front seat. The play is continued in this way until every one in the row has run.

The line wins whose player, sitting at the start in the front seat, first returns to his seat.

As in all schoolroom games where there is running, the seated players should be very careful to keep their feet under the desks that there may be nothing in the aisles to trip the runners.

Arch Ball

(Schoolroom)

10 to 100 players.

The players raise their seats where this is possible, and stand between the desk and the seat. Where the

seats cannot be raised, the players may sit in the seats or on the desks. An even number of players should be in each line, and only alternate lines play simultaneously, so as to leave clear the necessary aisle space for running. Those at the front of the lines should hold a ball or any substitute for passing backward over the head, such as a bean-bag, eraser, foot-rule, or a book. At a given signal the object is passed backward over the head to the next player, who in turn passes it backward, and so on down the line until the last player receives it. He runs forward on the right-hand side of his desk to the first seat. At the same time the other players in his row step into the aisle at the left of the desks and move backward one place. The line wins whose original leader first gets back to the front.

Schoolroom Dodge Ball

(Schoolroom)

10 to 60 players.

Gas ball.

The players are evenly divided into two teams. One team takes its place around the outer edge of the room; the players of the other team scatter through the aisles or seats, which latter should be turned up if possible. The outer team tries to hit the inner team with the ball. Any player who is hit takes his place in the outer team and joins in its play. The player who remains longest in the center has won.

Only a hit from the ball on the fly counts. A hit from a bounce does not put a player out. A "hit" is made when a ball touches any part of the clothing or person. If two players are hit by the same throw, only the first one hit is considered out. Players may dodge

the ball in any way. Should the ball be out of reach of any player of the circle team, it is returned to the circle players by a toss from one of the inner team

If desired, the hit players may leave the game instead of joining the outer circle. This leaves the teams intact, and each then keeps a separate score.

If successive games are played, the teams change places, the inner players going to the circle, and vice versa. The game may then be played in innings, if desired, each team to be given three minutes in the circle. One point is then scored against a team for every player hit, and the team wins which has the smallest score at the end.

CHAPTER XII

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

(CONTINUED)

Teachers must teach physical training. This edict has been made a law in many States. The investigations of physicians, educators, and social workers have revealed a need of physical awakening in this country. In the preceding chapter emphasis has been placed upon contest games. This chapter calls attention to other means of developing interest in physical efficiency and suggests definite plans for a physical education program.

Athletic Efficiency Tests

Efficiency tests adapted from Brown's *Outdoor Athletic Tests for Boys*, published by Association Press, 124 East 28th Street, New York, have been used in several County Play Days in Iowa and other States. These have proved very satisfactory, and are given here because we feel that rural boys and girls need just such exercises. Although it is not necessary to use these tests just as they are outlined below, the complete plan is given here for those who might wish to use it. If the scheme for scoring seems to be difficult, do not use it at first; simply tell the children that distance and time in the first column (the column labeled 0 points) ought to be easily attained by any healthy child, and then have them attempt to go beyond this standard.

EVENTS AND BASIS OF SCORING

GIRLS

AGE CLASSES	0 POINTS	HONOR POINTS	100 POINTS
8-10 *Year Class*			
Potato race (224 ft)...	30 sec.	25 sec.	20 sec.
Baseball throw.....	50 ft.	75 ft.	100 ft.
Standing broad jump..	3 ft. 3 in.	4 ft. 1 in.	4 ft. 11 in.
10–12 *Year Class*			
Potato race (304 ft.)...	38 sec.	33 sec.	28 sec.
Baseball throw.....	60 ft.	85 ft.	110 ft.
Standing broad jump..	3 ft. 8 in.	4 ft. 6 in.	5 ft. 4 in.
12–14 *Year Class*			
Potato race (304 ft.)...	35 sec.	30 sec.	25 sec.
Baseball throw.....	70 ft.	95 ft.	120 ft.
Standing broad jump..	4 ft. 1 in.	4 ft. 11 in.	5 ft. 9 in.

Points should be scored on the following basis:

Potato race, for every second less than the 30 seconds..... 10 points
Baseball throw, for every foot better than the minimum..... 2 points
Standing broad jump, for every inch better than the minimum 5 points

The section explaining the methods of classification and the making and using of equipment is very helpful, and can be put into use by any enterprising rural teacher.

Explanation of Methods of Classification.—Every boy is classified according to his weight. No boy weighing less than 60 pounds should be allowed to compete. Each contestant should be physically fit. This is determined on examination by a local physician or school nurse, who certifies regarding each scholar who enters the test. A weight class consists of all the boys in a school whose weights are within the limits designated. If a boy weighs one-half pound more than the highest limit of a class, he belongs to the class above; for exam-

EVENTS AND BASIS OF SCORING

Boys

WEIGHT CLASSES	0 POINTS	HONOR STANDARD	100 POINTS
60–80 *Pound Class*			
50-yard dash	10 sec.	8 sec.	6 sec.
Running broad jump	5 ft. 10 in.	10 ft.	14 ft. 2 in.
Baseball throw	70 ft.	120 ft.	170 ft.
80–95 *Pound Class*			
75-yard dash	13 sec.	11 sec.	9 sec.
Running broad jump	6 ft. 10 in.	11 ft.	15 ft. 2 in.
Baseball throw	100 ft.	150 ft.	200 ft.
Running high jump	2 ft. 6 in.	3 ft. 4 in.	4 ft. 2 in.
95–105 *Pound Class*			
100-yard dash	16 sec.	14 sec.	12 sec.
Running broad jump	7 ft. 10 in.	12 ft.	16 ft. 2 in.
Running high jump	2 ft. 9 in.	3 ft. 7 in.	4 ft. 5 in.
Baseball throw	130 ft.	180 ft.	230 ft.
105–115 *Pound Class*			
100-yard dash	15 sec.	13 sec.	11 sec.
Running broad jump	8 ft. 10 in.	13 ft.	17 ft. 2 in.
Running high jump	3 ft.	3 ft. 10 in.	4 ft. 8 in.
Baseball throw	145 ft.	195 ft.	245 ft.
Unlimited Class (Grade Boys over 115 pounds)			
100-yard dash	14 sec.	12 sec.	10 sec.
Running broad jump	9 ft. 10 in.	14 ft.	18 ft. 2 in.
Running high jump	3 ft. 4 in.	4 ft. 2 in.	5 ft.
Baseball throw	160 ft.	210 ft.	260 ft.

Points should be scored on the following basis:

All dashes, for every 1-5 second better than 10 seconds..... 5 points
Running broad jump, for every inch better than the minimum 1 point
Running high jump, for every inch better than the minimum 5 points
Baseball throw, for every foot better than the minimum..... 1 point

ple, if he weighs 80½ pounds, he is in the 80–95 pound class. Weight should be taken with shoes and coats removed.

Every girl is classified according to her age. An age class consists of all the girls in a school whose ages fall within the limits designated. If a girl is ten years and one month old, she belongs to the 10–12 year class. The health certificate should be required for all girls participating, as for all boys.

To illustrate how to work out the points for a child who is endeavoring to go beyond the 0 points. For example, an 8-year-old girl runs in the potato race and completes it in 28 seconds. Since this time is 2 seconds less than 30, or the 0 point column, she would make 20 points, because 10 points are given for each second less than the 0 point time. Now, if this child were to keep practising at this event for some time she would become efficient enough, perhaps, to complete the same event in 20 seconds, which is 10 better than the 0 column, and would give her 100 points.

An 8-year-old girl attempts the standing broad jump, and jumps 4 feet 2 inches. The 0 point column shows 3 feet 3 inches, or 39 inches, as the minimum distance. This child has jumped 50 inches, or 11 inches better than the minimum, and should receive 55 points.

Equipment.—Watch (stop watch preferred), spade, rake, jumping pit, jumping standards, cross-bar, base-ball, four 2-inch wooden cubes, two paper boxes about a foot square and 8 inches deep, tape line 50 to 75 feet long.

Directions for Making Equipment

Jumping Pit.—Spade up a space 15 or 16 feet long and 3 feet wide. Smooth it over with a rake. A piece of wood 8 inches wide should be sunk level with the ground as the take-off at one end of the pit.

Jumping Standards.—Uprights may be made of 2 by 3 inch sticks 6 feet in height. Beginning 2 feet above the ground, the holes are bored 1 inch apart. The uprights should be placed on the ground 9 to 12 feet apart. The cross-bar should be 1 inch square and 14 feet in length. A bamboo fishing-rod may be used for the cross-bar. This bar rests on 5-inch spikes placed through the holes of the uprights. Ten-inch square bases, made of 2-inch material, should support the uprights.

How to Conduct Events

Dashes.—Mark off a starting line, then measure from this line the varying distances to be run in your school, *i. e.*, 50 yards, 75 yards, and 100 yards. If stakes are placed in the ground to mark these distances, they will not need to be measured each time. Since the "start" of a dash position is so important this should be thoroughly taught first. The crouching position is most popular and effective. The front foot is placed about 6 inches behind the line, the rear foot is placed so that when kneeling the knee is opposite the instep of the front foot. When the starter says "Get on your marks," the boy kneels on the knee of his rear leg and places his hands just back of the line. On the command "Get set," this knee is raised and straightened slightly, and the body is pushed forward, keeping the back flat. On the word "Go," the boy springs forward with three or four short quick steps, keeping the body well forward until he has run several feet. A clap of the hands or of two boards may be substituted for the word "Go." Should a boy start before this signal he should be brought back and told that this is a foul,

with a penalty of being set back 1 yard for the first offense, and 2 yards for the second, with disqualification for the third offense. Carelessness in this respect may cost him the race in a regular meet. Each boy should be coached to keep going at top speed until the finish line for his race is crossed and, if a string is held at the finish, not to touch this with his hands. In determining the individual times in the various weight classes only one boy's time can be taken at one time; but it is much better to have one or more boys run with him, as few boys run their fastest when running alone. For example, you wish to see how fast John can run 75 yards. You ask James to run with him, and ask some other boy to act as starter. You stand at the finish line, watch in hand, and when the starter says "Go" he throws up one arm, and you start your watch. When John crosses the finish line you stop your watch, even though James may have crossed it sooner.

Running High Jump.—The bar is placed at the lower limit of the weight class, and is raised one inch at a time. Each boy is allowed three jumps at each successive height, and takes his jump in turn. Those who fail on their first trial take their second trial in turn, and those who fail on their second trial take their third in proper order. When a boy fails on his third trial at any height, he is declared out of the test and is given credit for the last height which he cleared. Knocking down the bar is counted as a trial. Running under the bar is a "balk." Three balks are counted as one trial. The boy may run any distance and from any direction before making his jump, but he should be encouraged to shorten his distance, as this allows more spring into the air.

Running Broad Jump.—A board 8 inches wide is sunk level with the ground at the near end of the jumping pit, and a runway of not less than 100 feet should be allowed leading to this pit. The boy should practise his run so he will land on the same foot on the take-off board each time. He should be encouraged to draw his knees well up after he takes off, and jump high as well as broad. He lands on both feet, and as he does so throws both arms forward and up so his body will fall forward. The measure of the jump is taken from the edge of the take-off board to the last mark he leaves on the pit. If he falls backward or lets his hand fall behind him the measurement is taken to here, but if he falls forward and his feet are his last marks, the measurement is taken to the back of the heel mark of the foot-print nearest the take-off board. Should the boy overstep the take-off board as his toe touches the ground beyond it, this is a foul and counts as one trial. Each boy has three trials, and the best jump out of the three is recorded. The ground should be kept soft and level after each jump so there will be no mistakes about foot-prints and so there will be no sprained ankles.

Standing Broad Jump.—This is conducted much the same as the running broad jump, although if the ground is reasonably soft no pit is necessary. The girl stands with her toes on a line with the forward edge of the take-off board, or behind a line drawn on the ground. After alternately rising on her toes and bending her knees, she throws her arms forward quickly and jumps forward with both feet at once. To get a good jump she must bend her knees well up in front while she is in the air, and land with her weight forward, as in the

running broad jump. Measurements are taken as in the running broad jump.

Baseball Throw.—A line is marked on the ground back of which the thrower must stand. He is given three trials, and his best throw is recorded. Should he step over the line on any throw it is a foul and counts as a trial without any measure being taken. It will save much time and trouble in measuring if some permanent stakes are driven in the ground at varying intervals from the throwing line, say 70 feet, 150 feet, etc.; then the individual throw may be measured from these stakes, provided the throw has been made in line with the stakes.

Potato Race.—A starting line is drawn and the boxes mentioned under equipment are placed on this line. For the 224-foot test the first potato (or block of wood) is placed 24 feet from the box, and the second 32 feet from the box and in line with the first potato. The spots where the potatoes lie should be marked by something that is easily seen, chalk-dust line or paper fastened down. For the 304-foot test the first potato is 34 feet out, and the second 42 feet from the box. In the race the runner stands back of the starting line, and at a signal to go she runs out and brings in one potato and drops it in the box. She runs out and brings in the second, touches the box with it, and replaces it on the mark, comes back, takes the first one out of the box, replaces it on the mark, and returns to the starting line. Failure to drop block in box or place it on the mark constitutes a foul, for which the runner has one second added to her time. As in the dashes, the person being timed should have some one running against her so she will do her best. She should keep up her speed

until she has crossed the starting line after replacing the blocks on the marks.

Explanation of Point System.—Every boy and girl is expected to train for and participate in all the events in his weight or age class. In this way he can raise his own individual standing and at the same time raise the standing of his weight class and his school.

If you will look at the table of events for each weight and age class for both boys and girls, you will note that for the first distance and time given no points are scored, but that points are given for each inch jumped in height, or each second in time deducted from the running time. These points should be tabulated by each pupil as he earns them, and when he succeeds in getting 50 points in any event he may consider himself an average performer in that event. Should he get 50 points in each event, he is considered an honor pupil in his weight class, and he may consider himself having the same average standing as any other boy in any other weight class with the same number of points.

Correct Posture

"Posture denotes the habitual carriage of the body, especially in the erect position. It involves the correct development and contours of spine, chest, shoulders, and other main segments as well as their relation to each other in the upright position."*

Importance of Good Posture.—Erect posture is necessary to full vigor and health. Only when the body is erect and standing at its fullest height are the great functioning organs of the trunk able to perform their

* Jessie Bancroft.

work to the best advantage. When the shoulders are thrown back in the proper position it gives a greater breadth to the lung capacity, and as the shoulders are placed in this position the sternum is raised. This increases the depth of the lung capacity, or the distance measured from the middle of the chest to the back. With this increase in depth and width much more room is given for lung and heart growth. Growth and strength of these organs means a strong, vigorous body. As the body grows and attains its full stature of manhood or womanhood it will be able to cope with disease and old age with wonderful efficiency. An erect body not only means a greater capacity for the lungs and heart, but it means that the diaphragm will be lifted as the sternum proceeds upward, and a greater capacity will be given to the liver, stomach, and other viscera that function in digestion and elimination.

The expenditure of nervous energy and muscular effort to maintain an incorrect standing position is greater than that necessary for a good standing position. The natural human body is an upright column, broken, however, at many points with joints and vertebræ divisions. Around each of these joints or segments are numerous ligaments and muscles that tend to maintain these sections and segments, one upon the other, in a normal position. In a perfectly poised standing position there is practically no stress or strain experienced. On the other hand, a poor position tends to strain certain muscles and ligaments too much, causing fatigue. How important it is, then, to begin habits of good posture early in a child's life.

Growing children need especial attention to posture habits, not alone because of the formation of such habit-

ual positions, but because they must use their powers of respiration, digestion, and elimination for growth, as well as for daily repair and usage of the body. This indicates that very careful attention must be given to the maintenance of the erect posture during all activities. When the child walks, plays, stands in the classroom, or takes part in any other activity he should maintain a good posture.

Interesting Children in Posture.—Correct posture cannot be secured through lecturing, courses of gymnastics, or admonishing children to "sit up," "bring your shoulders back." It must be brought about through interest. They must want to stand erect. There must be some immediate reward. There must be some idea of contest, in which the child is competing against a standard. One method of interesting children is by asking them to keep their eyes open for pictures of people who they think show good posture. These can be found in magazines, newspapers, and their text-books. If the pictures could be placed before the pupils and discussion given about their good points, ideals would gradually begin to form.

Charts showing good positions can be secured from the Posture Standards Company, 1 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y., and these can be placed in the schoolroom. An actual straight edge or plumb line equipment can be used to test erect posture. These methods and many others might be used to motivate good posture.

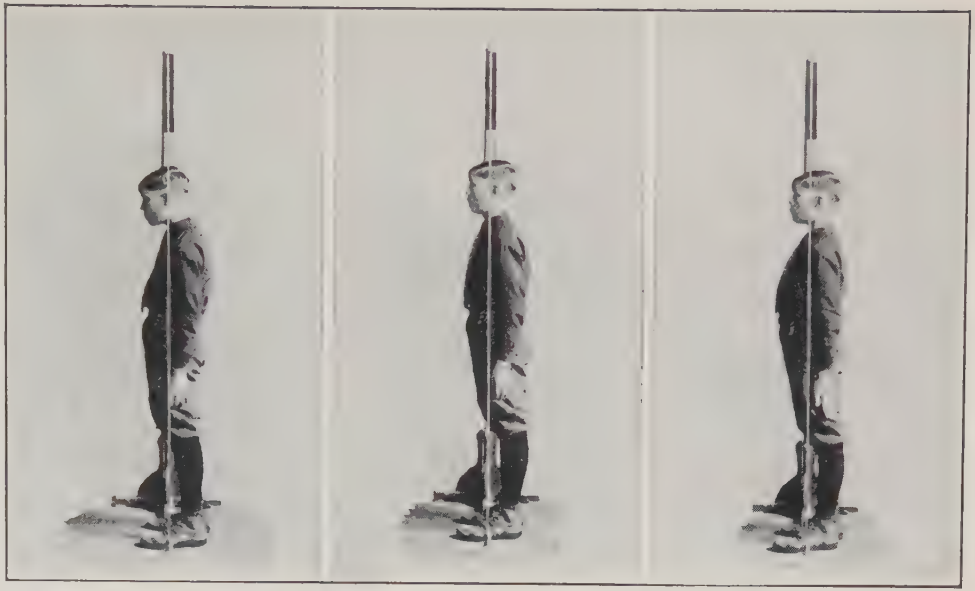
Another means of securing interest through the idea of contest, and measuring up to a standard, is the triple test. This test has been used with success in many secondary schools. It has been used with excellent results

in the Iowa State Teachers' College Training School, and has been given to many thousand prospective teachers who have taken college courses in physical training. The triple test is a success because it embraces the game, the attempt to meet certain standards, and is not difficult to supervise or administer from the teacher's standpoint. The triple test is based upon the relation of the erect human body to a vertical line. If the body is standing perfectly erect the long axes of the trunk, head, and neck form a vertical line. This constitutes the vertical-line test. To assist the eye a plumb line or window pole may be used to determine the correctness of the posture. The pole will pass the head and face just in front of the ear, pass the tip of the shoulder just in front of its middle, and strike the floor at or just back of the ball of the foot. (See picture.) The pole, if perpendicular to the earth, is a vertical line, and if the axes of the head, neck, and trunk coincide with the pole, the body is in the correct position.

If the vertical-line test is understood it is not difficult to administer the triple test.

The triple test is conducted as follows:

Standing Test.—The teacher asks one row of pupils to come to the front of the room and face with their sides toward the rest of the class. She, with the rest of the pupils (after having trained their judgment by the use of the plumb line), determines quickly which pupils fulfill the requirements of the vertical-line test. Those who pass this test go to the seats set apart for those who pass, and those who fail take certain seats designated for those failing. This continues until all have been tested and those passing have been sorted from those who fail.



INCORRECT POSTURE
Fatigue position

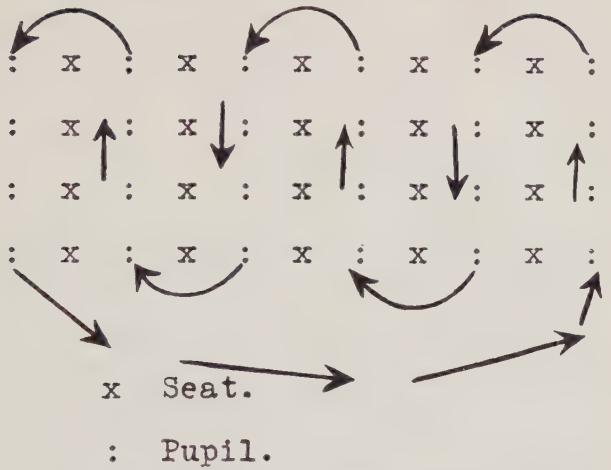
A PERFECTLY ERECT ATTITUDE

OVER-CORRECTED POSTURE

Marching Test.—All pupils are now asked to stand at the right hand side of their desks (if the seats open to the right), and the alternate rows face the back of the room. The leader, who is standing at the front of the first row, leads her line across the front of the room, and all other rows follow, marching in the part of the room between them and the first row. The leader follows the path of the last person in the last row, and thus leads the children up and down the aisles of the schoolroom. During this marching, which should last several minutes, the teacher watches those who passed the standing test to see if they can continue to hold their good posture while becoming somewhat fatigued by marching. If they lose this posture at any time they are asked to step back and march with those who failed in the first test. During the marching those who failed are trying to correct the faults pointed out to them as the cause of their failure.

Exercise Test.—The pupils who have passed the standing and marching tests successfully are then put through the third test, which is to determine how well they can maintain the proper poise of body when executing certain exercises through a period of five or ten minutes. (See following pages.) As these exercises continue the teacher will detect poor posture in certain pupils, drooping heads, the upper part of the chest or trunk sinking backward. Pupils exhibiting these signs would not pass the last test and should be asked to sit down as soon as they are detected.

The following exercise for the third test has been used with success. Many more might be given if space permitted. Any good exercise where arms and trunk muscles must be used is good.



POSITION OF PUPILS IN MARCHING TEST
Arrow indicates direction in march.

Formal Gymnastics

Gymnastics which are performed in response to commands given by teachers and instructors are known as formal gymnastics.

Any formal drill or gymnastic lesson in which pupils must respond in unison and meet certain requirements has three important aims:

(1) The correlation of mind and muscle so that the body will respond quickly when the mind sends a message to the muscles.

(2) The correction of posture habits during the execution of gymnastic movements, thus fixing better habits.

(3) The production of vigorous breathing and quickened circulation because of repeated contractions of large muscles.

The following exercises are excellent for the teacher to use to discover the pupils who do not keep good posture through the period of execution.

Exercise I.—Arm Exercise. Arms forward in a horizontal position and then placed at sides again in the cadence or rhythm of One, Two. At the command "Arm Exercise," which is the cautionary command, the pupils take a good standing position. At command "One," arms are brought up to a horizontal position level with shoulder and with precision. At "Two" they are dropped smartly to the side. Repeat with 8 counts in the rhythm One, Two, etc.

Teacher must watch for faulty positions as the exercise proceeds. The body should retain its original vertical line posture throughout the exercise.

Exercise II.—Knee-Bending. Hands on hips. Place! Knee-bending with heels off the floor. Down! Up! At "One" the heels are raised at the same time that knees are bent. Knees should point slightly outward, and the back should be erect. At "Two" the body returns to the erect position. Repeat this through 6 counts. Down! Up! Etc.

Exercise III.—Rotary Arm Movement. Arms upward. Raise! Rotary motion of extended right arm forward and back to original position, through 3 counts. Same with left arm through 3 counts. Both arms through 3 counts.

A Grading System for Triple Test

In order to add interest for the children and to give them and the teacher standards of attainment, the following plan is suggested:

Those of the group that are able to pass the three

tests successfully are given a mark of "A." Those who pass the first two are given a mark of "B." Those who pass the first test are given a "C." Those who do not pass any of the tests are given "D." If the teacher will give these tests every month, record the results, watch individual pupils that need help, encourage and keep

A PLAY-DAY SCENE IN NORTH DAKOTA

up a keen interest in posture, much can be accomplished toward improving the physique of the children.

Singing Games and Rhythmic Plays.

The following singing games, flag drills, and rhythmic plays have been included as a part of the work in physical education for rural schools because:

(1) Children need to develop rhythm, grace, and harmony in the carriage and movements of the body.

(2) Many children cannot be interested in any type of bodily exercise except through their æsthetic natures.

(3) Such exercises, when well worked out, make very acceptable material for pageants, play-days, or local school exercises.

The teacher will need a thirty-five-dollar victrola with appropriate records to do this work with the greatest success. The Victor record numbers have been given in each case, if there is a record made for that production.

Singing Games.—

THE FARMER IN THE DELL

1. The farmer in the dell, the farmer in the dell,
   Heigh-o, the dairy-o, the farmer in the dell.
2. The farmer takes a wife, the farmer takes a wife,
   Heigh-o, the dairy-o, the farmer takes a wife.
3. The wife takes a child, the wife takes a child,
   Heigh-o, the dairy-o, the wife takes a child.
4. The child takes a dog, the child takes a dog,
   Heigh-o, the dairy-o, the child takes a dog.

The players form a circle with the farmer in the center, and circle around from right to left (walk to rhythm of music) singing; just before close of second stanza the farmer chooses a wife from the circle; before the end of third stanza the wife chooses a child; fourth stanza the child takes a dog.

5. They all go round, they all go round,
   Heigh-o, the dairy-o, they all go round.

The farmer's wife, child, and dog join hands, and circle around right to left, inside large circle, facing outside circle, while outside circle continues around from right to left.

6. We all stand still, we all stand still,
Heigh-o, the dairy-o, we all stand still.

While singing stanza 6, the children stand still and clap hands to rhythm.

In the repetition of the game, the dog becomes the farmer.

The Muffin Man. V. R. 17568

"The Muffin Man" is a singing game of choosing and counting, in which a player skips in time to the music to another child, who is seated and sings a verse which is answered by the other. The two then join hands and dance around the circle, singing: "Two of us know," etc.

Looby Loo. V. R. 17567

All join hands, forming a circle, "Here we go Looby Loo," etc., dance around from right to left, hop and turn on "light." "Here we go Looby Loo, all on a Saturday night"; dance around from left to right. "I put my right hand in," etc.; players stand still, and put the right hand in toward the center of the circle, and then point it toward the outside of the circle; facing center, shake hand in time with music. Turn rapidly about in place as last line is sung, shouting "Oh!" on last note of measure.

Then repeat motions of first stanza. The game is continued, and players go through movements indicated by words. On last stanza, a little jump toward center of circle is taken.

I See You. V. R. 17158

Swedish Singing Game. "Peek-a-boo behind the trees." *Formation.*—Children stand in two double

rows, distance between rows about 6 feet; children stand about 3 feet apart, in each front row—"the two" —stand with hands on hips, those in each rear row, "the players," stand each with his hands on shoulders of the child in front.

1. I see you, I see you,
   Tra, la, la, la, la, la, la, la,
   I see you, I see you,
   Tra, la, la, la, la, la.

At first phrase, "I see you, I see you," children in rear row peep to left, then to right, over the shoulders of the "trees."

At second phrase, "Tra, la, la, la, la, la, la, la," movements of first phrase are repeated twice at first—left, right, left, right.

Third phrase: "I see you, I see you," same movements as first phrase, looking first to the right, *i. e.*, "right, left."

Fourth phrase: "Tra la, la, la, la, la," twice as fast as third phrase, *i. e.*, "right, left, right."

(Second movement.)

2. You see me, and I see you,
   Then you take me, and I take you,
   You see me, and I see you,
   Then you take me, and I take you.

1st and 2d:

You see me, and I see you,
Then you take me, and I take you.

All players clap their hands (on first note), while each one in the back row springs forward from left side of

his partner, and meets the one from the back row on the opposite side. They join both hands and swing about to the left—two slide steps to a measure.

3d and 4th:

You see me, and I see you,
Then you take me, and I take you.

On first note, all clap hands, then join hands with first partners and swing vigorously to places with sliding step; at the end all are in original rows, but the partners have changed places, so those that were in front row are in back row, each behind the original partner.

The entire game is repeated, those now in back row playing "Peek-a-boo."

Dance of Greeting. V. R. 17158

1. Clap, clap, bow,
Clap, clap, bow,
Clap, stamp,
Turn yourself about.

Formation.—Single circle, facing the center, partners standing side by side.

First phrase: Clap hands twice, turn toward partner, drawing back outside foot (the one away from partner), and bow.

Second phrase: Clap twice, then swing on toes toward neighbor (away from partner), and bow to neighbor.

Third and fourth phrases: Clap, stamp right foot, and turn entirely around, away from partner, with 3 light running steps, left foot around right foot, again face center.

2. Tra, la, la, la, la, la, la.

Join hands in the circle, take 16 short running steps to the left without pause, take 16 short running steps to right.

Repeat movements 1 and 2.

Oats, Peas, Beans. V. R. 17567

Formation.—Children form circle around child in center, who is the farmer.

First stanza:

Oats, peas, beans, and barley grow,
Oats, peas, beans, and barley grow,
Do you or I or any one know
How oats, peas, beans, and barley grow?

Children join hands, and walk to the left, around the farmer.

Second stanza:

Thus the farmer sows his seed,
Thus he stands and takes his ease,
Stamps his foot and claps his hands,
And turns around to view his lands.

First line: Sows seed from a bag held under the left arm, with swinging motion of right hand, from right to left.

Second line: Folds arms, standing erect.

Third line: Stamps right foot, claps hands.

Fourth line: Right hand shading brow, turns entirely around toward right in place, 4 steps.

Third stanza:

Waiting for a partner,
Waiting for a partner,

Open the ring and choose one in,
While all the others gaily sing.

First two lines. Children again join hands (open the ring), farmer chooses partner, who comes inside ring.

Fourth stanza:

Tra, la, la, la, la, la, la, la, la, la.

Children in circle stand still, clapping hands, while farmer and partner join hands and skip around inside the circle.

The one chosen becomes the farmer, the first farmer retiring to the circle.

Soldier Boy

Children form circle and sing. One child marches around inside circle carrying a flag or stick. At the end of the singing the leader may salute some one, who becomes flag-bearer and marches. This is repeated until all the circle are chosen. Various imitative motions may be used, as folding the arms in imitation of a knapsack, blowing imaginary trumpets, playing an imaginary drum, etc. The drum effects accent the rhythm while paper soldiers' hats will add to the interest.

The Mulberry Bush. V. R. 17104

Formation.—Single circle. Children join hands.

First stanza:

Here we go round the mulberry bush,
The mulberry bush, the mulberry bush,
Here we go round the mulberry bush,
So early in the morning.

Players walk from right to left in time to the music. At last line, "So early in the morning," drop hands, spin around in place from left to right again, facing center. This is done at last line of all stanzas.

(Second stanza to eighth stanza.)

At each stanza perform the action indicated by the text, all children doing the same thing.

The first stanza with its movements may be repeated between the second and third, third and fourth, and all succeeding stanzas, or it may be played but once, at the beginning.

Did You Ever See a Lassie? V. R. 17568

Formation.—One straight line, or if played with many children several lines one behind another, children spread well apart, that there may be room for movements. One child stands in front.

Imitative game:

Did you ever see a lassie, a lassie, a lassie,
Did you ever see a lassie do this way and that,
Do this way and that way, do this way and that way,
Did you ever see a lassie do this way and that?

At the second line, "Did you ever," etc., the child performs an original movement to the rhythm of the music, changing her movement when she desires. Children imitate.

If a boy is the leader the word "laddie" is substituted for "lassie."

Oshebogar

Formation.—Couples, single circle, all hands joined, facing center.

Measures 1–4: Eight slides to left.

Measures 5–8: Repeat right.

Measures 9–10: Beginning with left foot, walk forward 4 steps, body bent forward.

Measures 11–12: Repeat, moving backward, heads and arms high.

Measures 13–16: Partners face, right arm around partner's waist, and left arm slightly curved overhead. Eight skips in place, turning right, finishing in original positions.

Measures 17–20: Partners still facing, and with hands joined and arms extended sideways, take 4 steps inward, the body bending sideways inward with each step. A step and close to each measure.

Measures 21–24: Repeat this step outward with corresponding trunk movement.

Measures 17–20: (Repeated.) Same as measures 17–24, taking only 2 steps inward and 2 outward.

Measures 21–24: Same as measures 13–16.

Chimes of Dunkirk

Formation.—Two circles, the inner circle facing the outer; each facing his partner, hands on hips.

I. Measures 1–2: Stamp feet, right, left, right.

Measures 3–4: Hands high above head, clap three times.

Measures 5–8: Partners join hands, and turn each other around, back to place with 8 short running steps on toes.

Repeat from beginning.

II. Partners turn, join inside hands, held high and run round the circle from right to left, with 16 short

running steps. On last measure inside circle step forward, to new partner, and all turn to original formation.

Repeat I and II.

German Hopping Dance

Formation.—Single circle, partners facing each other, inside hands joined and held high, outside hands on hips, when moving outward from circle. Reverse arm positions when moving inward.

Measures 1–8: Slide outward 4 times. Slide inward 4 times. Repeat—sliding outward and inward again, (Changing arm positions with each change of direction.)

Measures 1–8: Repeated. Slide outward 4 times. Hop in place 4 times (both feet) with hands on hips. Slide inward 4 times (again taking partner's hand). Hop in place 4 times, hands on hips, and turning away from partner toward own right shoulder, finishing facing center of circle, and all join hands.

Measures 9–12: Run sideways to right 8 steps, crossing left foot in front of right. Repeat, 8 steps to left.

Measures 13–16: With hands still joined, all glide forward, left foot leading, toward center of circle 4 times, raising arms as you go in. Glide backward 4 times, right foot leading, lowering arms.

Measures 9–12: Repeated. Face partner as in beginning. Slide outward 4 times (with arm positions also as before). Hop in place 4 times, hands on hips. Slide inward 4 times. Hop in place 4 times, hands on hips, again turning to right, and finish facing partner, ready to join hands and begin dance again.

May-Pole Dance

May-pole: Four-inch gas-pipe, 15 feet high.
Streamers: High school colors, 12 of each color. Each streamer should be one foot wide and 24 feet long.
Formation: Twelve couples in single circle facing pole. Left hand partner is No. 1, right hand partner is No. 2. Each dancer holds streamer in her left hand throughout the dance.
Music: Introduction and 4 strains of 16 measures each. Play this all through twice as written. Streamers are taken before music begins.
Introduction: Measures 1–4.
Measures 1–2: Courtesy to partner.
Measures 3–4: Courtesy to pole.
First strain: Measures 1–16.
Measures 1–4: All join hands and walk to the right 8 steps.
Measures 5–8: Skip to the right 8 steps.
Measures 9–12: Turn and walk to left 8 steps.
Measures 13–16: Skip to left 8 steps.
Second strain: Measures 1–16 and repeated.
Measures 1–2: All take 3 steps toward center of circle and finish on fourth count with feet together.
Measures 3–4: All take 3 steps out and finish on fourth count, with feet together.
Measures 5–8: All slide right 8 slides.
Measures 9–10: Repeat steps done to Measures 1–2.
Measures 11–12: Repeat steps done to Measures 3–4.
Measures 13–16: All slide to left 8 slides.
Measures 1–16: Repeated. Repeat all of above step.
First strain: Measures 1–16.
Measures 1–8: Break hands, and partners face each

other in a single circle, each holding streamer in her right hand. Each skips in the direction she is facing for 16 skip steps. (This makes a double circle with number ones on outside skipping counter-clockwise, and number twos on the inside skipping clockwise.

Measures 9–16: Without changing streamers to other hand, all face in opposite direction and skip back to starting place by partner 16 steps.

Introduction: Measures 1–4.

Measures 1–2: Courtesy to partner.

Measures 3–4: Courtesy to pole.

First and second strain with second strain repeated, 48 measures in all: Partners face each other and starting to the left weave streamers throughout the 48 measures, using the skip step. In weaving No. 1 goes to the left of her partner, ducking under her partner's streamer, and to the right of the next one she meets, holding her streamer high so this person may pass under it. All the number ones are circling around counter-clockwise, while the number twos circle clockwise; and by this alternate ducking under and passing over around the circle, the streamers are braided.

First strain: Measures 1–16.

First: Drop streamers and skip off with partner, inside hands joined. This music should be finished with a chord.

Shoemaker's Dance

Formation.—Double circle. Partners face each other.

Measures 1–2: With arm shoulder high and hands clenched, roll one arm over the other three times.

Reverse and roll three times. "Winding the thread."

Measure 3: Pull hands apart and jerk elbows backward twice. "Pulling thread tight," making a hissing noise.

Measure 4: Clap hands three times.

Repeat measures 1–4: On measure 4 hammer the fists 3 times. "Driving the peg."

Measures 5–8: Join inside hands, outside hands on hips. Skip around the ring. Simple polka may be used. Repeat from beginning.

Flag Drill

Three figures and interlude. Music "Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean."

Starting Position.—Arms bent at elbows, hands near shoulders.

Flags held vertically at either side of the face.

Each figure begins and ends this way.

Fig. 1

A. One full outward circle. 4 counts.

i. e.—Flags are thrust straight upward from the starting position until arms are fully extended. Arms then part to sides, the left going down left, the right going down right, until they are fully extended at low front. Here they cross and return to starting position. The right arm crosses over the left.

Repeat *A.* 4 counts.

B. One full inward circle. 4 counts.

i. e.—Flags are thrust straight upward as above, but this time when at highest point the right arm crosses over the left and travels down

the left side of the body, while the left goes down the right side. After they cross at low front they return to starting position with a full swing at the sides of the body.

Repeat *B*. 4 counts.

C. Point both flags to left horizontal. 2 counts.
" " " " front " . 2 counts.
" " " " right " . 2 counts.
Return flags to starting position. 2 counts.
Repeat all of *C*, starting to right side. 8 counts.
Do whole figure two times in all.
Using all of music for the first stanza. 64 counts.

Interlude

A. Walk 3 steps forward with arms stretched sideways horizontal, bringing feet together on fourth count. 4 counts.

B. Jump to the stride with arms stretched diagonally upward. 4 counts.
Stand in place and cross and uncross flags overhead. 4 counts.
i. e.—Flags are crossed on count 1, uncrossed on count 2, etc.
Jump to starting position. 4 counts.

C. Walk backward 3 steps with arms stretched sideways horizontal, bringing feet together on fourth count. 4 counts.
Repeat *B*. 12 counts.
Use all of chorus music. 32 counts in all.

Fig. 2

A. Step backward left, stretching the arms above the head, keeping flags parallel. 4 counts.

Kneel, bringing flags through forward to sideways horizontal. 4 counts.

Stretch knees and fling the flags forward upward above the head as in first movement of this figure. 4 counts.

Replace the foot forward and bring the arms to starting position. 4 counts.

Do all four times, left, right, left, right. 64 counts.

Interlude

Fig. 3

A. Step to the side with the left foot and stretch arms to forward horizontal. 2 counts.

Bend trunk forward and fling arms sideways, keeping them shoulder height. 2 counts.

Straighten trunk and fling arms back to forward horizontal again. 2 counts.

Replace left foot and bring flags to starting position. 2 counts.

Repeat *A*, but begin with right foot. 8 counts.

B. Point both flags to left horizontal. 2 counts.

" " " " front " . 2 counts.

" " " " right " . 2 counts.

Bring flags to starting position. 2 counts.

Repeat all of *B*, but start to right. 8 counts.

Do whole figure two times in all. 48 counts.

Interlude

QUESTIONS

1. Why should children be taught to play?
2. What is the effect of wholesome play on children?
3. Some teachers think that if they take part in the games the children will take advantage and become too familiar during school hours. What is your opinion?

4. How would you interest your school board and patrons in purchasing playground equipment?
5. What means would you employ to interest the people of the community in a Community Play Day?
6. How would you answer the parent who suggests that children have exercise enough when they do their chores around home and do not need play at school?
7. What arguments would you give to show that a teacher should or should not supervise play?

PROBLEMS

1. Make a list of games that you would use and the equipment necessary in a school with eight primary children, seven in the third, fourth, and fifth grades, and one eighth-grade child.
2. Make observations on the following conditions in your own or a near-by school:
   (*a*) Size of the playground.
   (*b*) Pupils in the school, age, and sex.
   (*c*) Play equipment.
   (*d*) Games used by pupils.

   If conditions are not satisfactory after you have made your observations, show how you would improve them.
3. Make a diagram of a school ground, locating play apparatus.
4. Plan a play evening for your community. Name the games you would use. Show the value of such a program.

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CHAPTER XIII

THE SUPERVISED LUNCH

The following excerpt from a Kansas State Agricultural College bulletin, volume No. 7, sets forth in a very excellent manner what should be considered in a discussion on lunches for rural schools.

Necessity for Proper Foods.—"Lack of proper food or improper feeding may be regarded as contributing quite as much to the backwardness of pupils as poor mentality. In fact, some authorities go so far as to say that overfeeding or underfeeding, in many instances, is responsible for poor mentality. If the children of the poor are half starved, many children of well-to-do families are overfed, and often poorly fed. They are allowed to eat all they can hold of what they like, whether it be food suited to their use or not. Children are poorly fed when they are given foods not properly selected and prepared, or not easily digested, even though they may be the most expensive articles on the market. Even when the food is properly selected and prepared, it is often served without regularity. Doctor James F. Russell, of Teachers College, Columbia University, is quoted as saying: 'No greater shock ever came to me than when I once called a physician to diagnose the illness of one of my children, and was told very bluntly that what ailed the child was food.'"

Instinct no Guide in Feeding Children.—Ignorance of the human body and its needs is at the bottom of the trouble. This is a field in which the instinct which

guides a mother in other numerous ways seems to be entirely lacking. Doctor Emmett Holt, the famous children's doctor, says: "One of the most striking things about children suffering from malnutrition is their vulnerability. They 'take everything,' as there is but little resistance to any infectious disease which the child may contract." Emeline S. Whitcomb says: "To prevent the evil effect of bad nutrition, Europe began years ago to feed its school children by furnishing either a breakfast or a warm meal at noon, or in the middle of the afternoon. Undoubtedly, in this way, thousands of children have been saved from a joyless youth, and have made healthy members of society. This good work is being carried on in over 200 English cities, 150 German cities, 1,200 French communities, 55 Italian cities, and in many American cities."

Food for Children.—What growing children need is plenty of simple, wholesome, easily digested food, carefully prepared and regularly served. There should be a pleasing variation about it, and occasionally a treat may be permitted. Farmers are keenly alive to the value of a well-balanced ration for the beef cattle, for the dairy cows, and for the fattening hogs; what an immensely greater value will be perceived when mothers understand the importance of a well-balanced diet for their children.

Attractiveness of School Lunch.—In many States, the matter of malnutrition of children is a grave menace; in some States there are countless hundreds of boys and girls who do not receive a balanced ration. Hot lunches in the rural schools are not so much for the balancing of rations as for adding palatability to the every day cold and often unattractive lunch. This lunch hour may be

a time of healthy sociability among the school children during the lunch time. It is hoped that it will also aid in teaching good table manners in an indirect way.

The Cold Lunch

The school lunch is much discussed at women's meetings, and there is a decided effort toward improvement. A cold lunch need not lack attractiveness any more than it needs to be without food value; although the latter should have the first consideration, the former should in nowise be overlooked. Plain, even poor, fare will be relished if served in an appetizing manner. Miss Emeline S. Whitcomb says: "The contents of the lunch should consist of 'something starchy and something fat and something fibery, something sweet and something savory.' Bread and butter or sandwiches of some sort will always be the basis of a lunch. The bread should be cut in moderately thin, even slices, having the butter spread evenly on the bread. There can be an endless variation in the filling for sandwiches—chopped meat seasoned and moistened, chopped nuts, eggs or fruits, such as raisins, dates or figs. (Where canned or preserved fruit or jelly is to be used as a part of the lunch, it is better to put it into a covered glass or jar.) The sandwiches keep moist longer if wrapped in oiled or paraffin paper; this also prevents the lunch from mashing together. Fresh fruit in season may be added to the lunch or a dessert in the form of a little treat. If this treat be a surprise, it will add to the pleasure of the lunch. The dessert should be little in quantity—a bit of cake, a couple of cookies, a cup of custard, a handful of nuts, or a piece or two of candy. A lunch carefully prepared may be as tempting as one

could wish and also meet the needs of the body. If something hot be eaten with the lunch, loss of appetite, so prevalent among children, due to the monotony of cold lunches every day, is prevented."

There are two distinct types of supervised noon lunches: the supervised lunch without the warm dish and the lunch with the hot supplement. Both need very careful management.

Aims of the Supervised Lunch

Physical.—Every child is required to sit quietly in his seat for twenty to twenty-five minutes to eat his noon meal. This encourages proper mastication of a sufficient amount of food. The children cannot grab an apple in one hand and a piece of bread and butter in the other, run to the playground, and at an exciting time of the game throw away most of what they may have in their hands. If children know that they are to eat their noon meal in an orderly fashion they will not go to the dinner-pail at recess time in the morning and remove the best food. Should any do so, the teacher could explain why such habits are harmful. A large percent of country children suffer from malnutrition; a large percent are under weight. Few children eat enough vegetables and drink enough milk to supply the needed minerals and vitamines. Lack of variety is another evil. Malnutrition is the result. This means less vitality. Many country children eat an early breakfast, a few eat practically nothing. A warm dish will aid digestion and make the cold lunch more valuable. A school that aims to build up a constructive health program should feature the school lunch. There is a vital connection between man's psychic and physi-

ological natures. The efficiency of one depends upon the strength of the other. The bad effect of malnutrition upon the mind is an established fact. Correct food habits mean proper nourishment and improved mentality.

Educational.—When the noonday lunch becomes a part of the daily school routine the teacher has an excellent opportunity to teach practical lessons in domestic science. For example, the use of milk as a food, especially for growing children, the use or abuse of sweets and condiments, the selection of certain foods for the lunch-basket. These hints for food selection not only will have their effect upon the children but also will gradually find their way to the mothers.

The school lunch that does not function in moral development is a partial failure. Education is measured in terms of conduct. The lunch can be a factor in teaching responsibility, unselfishness, reverence, self-respect in habits of cleanliness and refinement.

Social.—Proper social development is an outstanding problem in enriching rural life. The school lunch hour, properly organized and supervised, becomes a period for happy sociability, comradeship, and fellowship, in place of the unsightly "eat as you run" spectacle. The teacher who eats with the children can direct this most important part of the lunch period. She has a wonderful opportunity to suggest sociability that increases co-operation and friendliness.

The Routine of the Supervised Luncheon.—At 11.45 the children are dismissed by groups to prepare for lunch. The monitors get the dinner-pails from the shelf and pass them to the pupils and the teacher. A napkin or desk-cloth is spread on the desk, and upon

this the food is nicely arranged according to a plan worked out by pupils and teacher. The teacher acts as hostess, and is an example to the children. After twenty or twenty-five minutes all will have finished, and in an orderly fashion placed dishes, remaining food, napkins, and desk-cloths in the dinner-pails. The monitors collect the pails and return them to the shelf. Now all may enjoy a good half hour of fun on the playground. This type of lunch needs no equipment, except something to cover the tops of the desks, and clean newspapers can be used for this. There is really no good reason why this type of lunch cannot be used. The enterprising teacher, by using this supervised lunch as a beginning, can many times introduce the hot supplement later.

The Supervised Hot Supplement

Preparation.—Ordinarily, and especially in the rural school, the teacher does not have time to cook the food, so the work must be done by the pupils themselves. Two pupils are usually enough to prepare the dish, and one of these should be an older pupil. Two others should wash the dishes. If there is a large number to be served, two should be waitresses, otherwise the ones who cook will do the serving. The boys will be glad to help and will do as well as the girls.

Equipment and Supplies.—Where there is equipment for teaching domestic science add a granite pail or two, and large ladles to be used in serving. The cooking is done on a blue-flame kerosene stove (never gasoline). Each child provides his own serving-dishes and silverware. These are kept in the school until the close of the term. In the fall, enough corn husks are gathered

PREPARATION OF THE HOT SUPPLEMENT

SERVING THE HOT SUPPLEMENT

to make mats or pads, so that each pupil may have one to place beneath his hot dish. The desk-cloth is made from a flour-sack. Each child makes three. They are neatly hemmed, and often the children work their initials in one corner. A clean napkin is placed in his lunch-box each day.

In the fall, when fruits and vegetables are plentiful, each child gathers his share and brings it to school, or to some home where the domestic science class meet and can them for winter use. These canned goods are then carefully stored away in a neighbor's cellar and called for as needed. Carrots, corn, tomatoes, and apples are the most common foods canned. Other garden truck, as beans, onions, potatoes, turnips, and cabbage, is stored away in a vegetable cellar and supplied as needed. In this case, each child signs up for what he has ready to bring. For other supplies, such as milk, butter, eggs, and flour, a calendar is made. The names of the pupils are listed alphabetically, and they are called upon to supply in their turn. Care is taken to apportion the supply so that all may share alike.

Teaching Eating Habits.—Many children in the rural schools by the careless way in which they eat their noon-day lunch form habits of eating which are wasteful, injurious to health, and destructive to refined table manners. While the mother is training her lad and lassie "not to take more on their plates than they can eat," or is insisting that they "clean up their plates" before they take any more food, the same children at school are permitted to take sandwiches, cake, or other food from well-filled lunch-baskets, and run out to play, only to throw away large portions of the food as the game becomes exciting.

Eating piecemeal through the noon hour, eating while the body is in a high state of nervous tension, gulping food, and rowdy conduct quite often characterize the noonday meal in the country school where there is no supervision on the part of the teacher.

In the rural demonstration schools associated with the Iowa State Teachers' College an attempt is being made to supplement the child's home training with school training, and to prevent the formation of bad habits of eating and improper manners. Sandwiches, cake, and scraps of food are not thrown about the school grounds. When noon time approaches each school begins to prepare for serving the noonday lunch, if by nothing more than by taking the pails and baskets to the desks where the children sit to eat in an orderly way, just as if they were at their own tables at home.

Dishes Commonly Served.—The dishes most commonly prepared are (1) soups: corn, potato, tomato, and bean; (2) scalloped dishes: corn and potato; (3) baked dishes: beans and Spanish rice; (4) creamed carrots, potato, eggs; (5) puddings: chocolate, vanila custard, rice, and bread; (6) hot chocolate is served as a beverage.

School Lunch Routine.—In a number of the demonstration schools the domestic science girls cook a hot dish to serve with the lunches the children bring from home. The program is so planned that a general period for educative seat work begins about 11.30 A. M. The teacher instructs the older girls as to the preparation of the warm dish. (Much of this detailed work has usually been done at recess time by pupils and teacher.) These girls proceed with the lunch. The older boys may work at manual training, or any other line of manual work that they may have to do, and the rest of the school

are employed at hand work. By this plan every one is engaged in manual exercises just before the noon hour.

At twelve o'clock the children are dismissed to prepare for lunch. They return to their seats and the monitors appointed pass the dinner-pails. At a signal all lunches are arranged on the desks. A napkin or desk-cloth is first spread upon the desk, upon this the food is arranged. If a spoon is to be used, it is placed in the proper position with the same care as it would be if the children were setting the table for a fine banquet. No child begins to eat until the signal has been given that all are ready. The waiters from the domestic science class pass the hot dish. The teacher eats her lunch with the children. There is quiet but pleasant conversation. Lessons in good manners are caught as well as taught. At the close of the meal all the left-overs and the dishes brought from the home are packed into the baskets. Then all are excused and the monitors of the day carry the baskets and pails to the hall. The waiters gather up the remaining dishes, wash them, and finish the work in the kitchen. It usually takes until 12.30 to complete the noon lunch. The girls in the domestic science class take turns serving and washing dishes.

Model Plan

8.45– 0.00.	Carroll and Ann wash and peel ½-peck potatoes and put in cold water.
10.30.	Carroll puts water in kettle to heat over a low flame. Wash off milk bottle and open. Pour milk into double boiler. Ann measures ½-cup butter and 5 teaspoonfuls salt.
11.00.	Ann puts potatoes into boiling water (add salt after potatoes are boiling). Put some hot water into lower part of double boiler.

11.45. Carroll puts milk on to heat. Sets out bowls, spoons, and napkins. Assists in heating potatoes. Ann removes potatoes from fire, drains and mashes, putting in ½-cup butter, and hot milk.

12.00–12.15. Two other children serve if cafeteria service is not possible.

12.30–12.45. Three children clear away dishes; one washing, one drying, and one putting away.

By-Products of Noon Lunch.—As may be expected, difficulties arise from time to time. Sometimes the potatoes, for instance, do not get done on time. This situation is handled just as it would be in a well-ordered household. Every one keeps busy at play, or at work, until the meal is ready to be served, and then it is eaten in as orderly a procedure as if it had been ready on time. There is no going to dinner pails and eating part of the lunch before time to serve it any more than a family would eat part of the meal before the remainder was prepared. The children no more think of being disorderly during the lunch period than they do during their arithmetic or reading lessons. Thus through the supervised lunch, practical training in cookery and serving is given to the girls in the domestic science class, refinement in table manners is fostered in all members of the school. Proper food, properly eaten, plus the half hour of play, make clear-skinned, healthy groups of girls and boys, the desired result of the supervised noon hour.

QUESTIONS

1. How would you justify the supervised noonday lunch or the hot supplement in a rural school?
2. What time of the year would you serve the hot supplement?

3. How would you proceed to establish the hot supplement and the supervised lunch if they had never been tried in your school?
4. Suppose some families objected to furnishing supplies for the warm dish. How would you manage such a situation?
5. Suppose your schoolroom is too small to give any space for additional equipment for the noon lunch. How would you proceed?
6. Should boys take any part in preparing and serving of the noon lunch?
7. Suppose one of the parents objects to his child being "hampered" by this "new notion" of the noon lunch? What will you do about it?
8. Suppose that one or two families persisted in furnishing poor food in their children's lunch baskets. What would you do about it?
9. Under what circumstances would you suggest that the district have dishes enough at the schoolhouse to serve the noon lunch?
10. Suppose that some of the best patrons want the district to furnish all the supplies for the noon lunches. What is your opinion on this?

PROBLEMS

1. Miss Y teaches at Center School. The first day she discovers that the children place their dinner-pails on the floor in the outside hall near the rubbers. She notices that some of the lunches are wrapped in newspapers, some are in old baskets and dingy pails. She notices that the lunches themselves are not wholesome. The children smile when the teacher mentions bringing milk to school. How would you solve these problems?
2. In School No. 7 the enrollment consists of eight children in the first grade, four older boys in sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, and one girl in the eighth grade. Would you attempt the hot supplement? How would you proceed?

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CHAPTER XIV

HEALTH EDUCATION

Need for Health Training.—Of the so-called new movements in education there is no one of greater significance and promise than that of health education. Scientific investigations and the intense struggles of a World War, demanding unusual physical strength at home as well as abroad, gave this movement a mighty impetus. There never was a time when physical strength translated into intellectual and moral power meant as much for individual and national success as to-day.

We are more or less familiar with the facts brought out in the examinations of millions of draft men. We wish to call special attention to two facts. First, about one half of the men found incapacitated for military service because of health conditions came from rural communities. Second, thousands of young men were rejected because of physical defects that in youth could have been removed.

But we have even more conclusive proof than war figures of the need for health care, both in city and country. Physical examination of boys and girls in school now gives us some startling facts. In one county 87 per cent of the rural children suffered from one or more physical ailments. Hundreds of thousands of health examinations have been made, and all tell the same story of need and that rural children are not excepted. In spite of this fact there are a number of people living in a fool's paradise thinking that God's open air, and

inspiring sentiments about the beauty of nature found in sermon and in song, are a guarantee for health.

Our increasing knowledge only emphasizes the need for health work. Through united and intelligent effort we must make the weak strong, the crooked straight, and the timid courageous.

Health a Management Problem.—*Attendance and Health.*—Perfect attendance has been urged elsewhere in the text. Economic loss follows poor attendance. One of the Middle Western States loses $45,000,000 a year on its school investment. Eighty per cent of this loss is due to preventable illness. One of every five children is absent daily because of illness. A nurse in a Western county, summarizing her first year's work, disclosed the following figures: 3,340 pupils inspected; 1,855 had physical defects; 906 bad teeth; 610 nasal obstructions; 597 defective throats; 254 poor eyes; 857 under weight. With the above conditions true in many localities it becomes evident that health is a school problem. If the American schools are to function as educational centers with the growing citizens of the nation, they must help make it possible for healthy children to attend school. The teacher needs to make plans for health work in her school just as much as she would for the teaching of reading or arithmetic.

Proper Physical Environment.—It is folly to talk about health education if the school plant and the equipment destroy as fast as we can build up. One of the outstanding achievements of the last two decades has been the progress made in schoolhouse construction and sanitary equipment. Our country children should profit by this progress. First of all, the pupils must be properly housed. The modern building described in a pre-

vious chapter should be the goal. The building must be properly ventilated, the heat regulated, and the air properly humidified. The light must be right both as to kind and amount. One of the most serious problems in the rural school is that of seating. Improper seating is one of the outstanding causes for poor health and physical deformities.

Recreation and Physical Training.—This subject is fully treated in another chapter. It is restated here to emphasize its importance in health education. Special emphasis should be placed upon games that tend to correct physical defects and keep the body in good condition.

One of our most hopeful experiments along this line is the so-called work-study-play program. Is physical education possible in a rural school? Yes, because its chief emphasis is placed upon the playing of games. The present tendency toward outdoor play as a part of regular school work is exceedingly wholesome, and should result in better health conditions in rural communities.

It is evident that health ideals find a place in many of the management problems of the school.

What the Teacher Can Do.—*Teach Health Habits.*—A person is never safe until the common health duties become habitual. The essential health habits are simple, but important. In the development of health habits the first step is to make the child desire health. Master the law of habit formation. Perhaps the Modern Health Crusade, or a similar method, is the teacher's best aid in teaching the rules of the health game. Decide upon some method and master the details. In any attempt to inculcate health habits, some form of morn-

ing inspection is essential. The plan of the Health Crusade is described as follows:

The Modern Health Crusade is a system of health education originated by the National Tuberculosis Association. There is probably not a State in which it is not now well established, many of them having State directors. The Crusade teaches the fundamental health rules chiefly through the use of a health chore record, which is checked daily by the child. This record extends over a period of from fifteen to thirty weeks. The child who does 75 per cent of the Crusaders' health chores for two, five, ten, or fifteen weeks becomes successively a page, squire, knight, and knight baronet in health chivalry. On the wall of the schoolroom is a roll of knighthood, on which the Crusaders' names are inscribed. Seventeen State Departments of Education have adopted the Crusade as a part of the curriculum, in many of which school credit is given to children earning honors.

STATEMENT OF MODERN HEALTH CRUSADE CHORES

1. I washed my hands before each meal to-day.
2. I washed not only my face but my ears and neck and I cleaned my finger-nails to-day.
3. I kept fingers, pencils, and everything likely to be unclean or injurious out of my mouth and nose to-day.
4. I brushed my teeth thoroughly after breakfast and after the evening meal to-day.
5. I took ten or more slow, deep breaths of fresh air to-day.
6. I was careful to protect others if I spat, coughed, or sneezed.
7. I played out of doors or with windows open more than thirty minutes to-day.
8. I was in bed ten hours or more last night and kept my windows open.
9. I drank four glasses of water, including a drink before each meal, and drank no tea, coffee, or other injurious drinks to-day.
10. I tried to-day to eat only wholesome food and to eat slowly. I went to the toilet at my regular time.
11. I took a full bath on each of the days of the week that are checked X.

Co-operate With the School Nurse.—Any effective system of physical education and health development must be based on thorough medical inspection. A cumulative record for every individual is essential. This knowledge is valuable, however, only as an honest attempt is made to remove the defects. The person best adapted and most successful for this work, especially the follow-up work, is the school nurse. No other person can so effectively awaken a community to its health needs.

The teacher has a twofold responsibility in this connection. She should first exert her influence to get the people to work for a county nurse, and then to keep her. In the next place the teacher must assist the nurse in her work and make her work effective in the district. This means developing the right sentiments toward the county nurse on the part of parents and pupils, help her in her follow-up work, arrange for public meetings, and get parents to bring their children to clinics. Where there is no county nurse, the teacher must assume a greater responsibility. This is especially true in regard to physical diagnosis work. The teacher should make a study of and be able to detect the symptoms of the more common diseases and ailments. She should be able to give the simple eye test. She should also have mastered the details of first aid work. The teacher must exercise special care in case of contagious diseases; know the laws of the State, the rules and regulations of the State and local boards on this point.

Know Communicable Diseases.—No child should ever knowingly be exposed to a communicable disease. The older a child is before being exposed by accident to a communicable disease the less likely he is to take it. Teachers should know the symptoms of the common

diseases among children. Many of these diseases if not cared for properly result in serious defects. Measles are too often treated as a very small matter. Many eyes have been ruined for ever because of the lack of knowledge of the effect of measles on that delicate organ. The same might be said of many of the "harmful" diseases.

The tables on pages 290 to 293 are included with the hope that students may become more familiar with the communicable diseases of children and that as teachers they may apply their knowledge.

KNOW THE OUTSTANDING EVIDENCE OF

Adenoids and Enlarged Tonsils.—The physical condition of school children is the index to community health. Physicians cannot accomplish the task of pointing out these difficulties, because they are not given the opportunity. It becomes the duty of the teacher to know some of the simple and very plain evidences of the more common ailments that hinder children's progress in school. If the teacher will work at this task in a tactful manner she will save many discouragements among parents and children and make her own work more effective. This first discussion is the most important because adenoids and enlarged tonsils cause most of the other difficulties discussed. The authors suggest that the student make a careful study of "adenoids and tonsils." If such a study is made then there will be no difficulty in seeing that all the evidences mentioned below have their sources in adenoids and enlarged tonsils. Evidences that may be read by any teacher or parent:

(*a*) Mouth breathing.

(*b*) Foul breath.

COMMUNICABLE DISEASES AMONG SCHOOL CHILDREN

DISEASE	EARLY SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS	DANGERS OF INFECTION	WHAT TO DO WITH THE CASE	REMARKS
DIPHTHERIA	Croup. Sore throat, gray-white patch on tonsil or palate. Blood tinged or abnormal nasal discharges.	Discharges sprayed or thrown from mouth or nose in coughing, sneezing or spitting. Direct contact with infected persons. Carriers.	Exclude during quarantine, minimum period 12 days, until 2 consecutive cultures from nose and throat taken at 24 hour intervals fail to show the diphtheria bacilli.	This is a very serious disease. It is especially fatal in the earlier years of life. One or more attacks do NOT confer immunity. Whenever a case of diphtheria develops in a school room all pupils in that room should immediately have cultures taken of their noses and throats to detect the next cases and the CARRIERS.
SCARLET FEVER	Sudden onset: Vomiting, sore throat, headache, fever. Rash on neck and upper part of chest.	Discharges sprayed or thrown from mouth or nose in coughing, sneezing or spitting. Also discharges from ears and broken down glands. Direct contact with infected persons and mild cases.	Exclude during quarantine, minimum period, 4 weeks. Exclude until there are no abnormal discharges from nose, ears or broken down glands	SCARLET FEVER is very communicable both during the attack and during convalescence. The infectious agent leaves the patient's body on the droplets of saliva and the normal and abnormal discharges from the nose, ears, and broken down glands. As long as these abnormal discharges persist, there is danger of spreading the infection. "Scarlatina," so-called, is mild scarlet fever and must be handled as scarlet fever.
SMALLPOX	Headache, backache, nausea, malaise, slight temperature and "la-grippe" like symptoms.	Discharges from lesions of the skin. Direct contact with infected person. Articles infected by having been in contact with infected persons. Beware of mild cases.	Exclude during quarantine. Minimum period of 10 days and until all specific lesions have healed.	All persons coming in contact with a case of smallpox should be vaccinated. The physician does this in one place where it does not show. Nature does this on the face and leaves many scars for life.
POLIO-MYELITIS	Headache, severe pain in back and legs. Weakness and lassitude.	Discharges from nose, throat, and bowels. Direct contact with infected person or indirect contact through infected articles.	Exclude during quarantine and for 1 week after release from quarantine. Minimum period of quarantine is 21 days.	This disease often leaves the child crippled for life. Early medical attention should be secured for the paralysis.

CEREBRO–SPINAL MENINGITIS	Headache, chills, vomiting, and pain in back. Stiffness in muscles of neck and fever.	Discharges sprayed or thrown from mouth or nose in coughing, sneezing or spitting. Direct contact with infected persons. Carriers.	Exclude during quarantine, and for 1 week after release from quarantine. Minimum period of quarantine shall be for 1 week after temperature returns to normal.	All contacts with the case should be cultured to locate new cases and CARRIERS.
MEASLES	"Cold in Head." Fever, running nose, watery, red eyes. Sneezing. Cough. Rash.	Discharges sprayed or thrown from mouth or nose in coughing, sneezing or spitting. Direct contact with infected persons.	Exclude until complete clinical recovery. Minimum period 14 days.	Is infectious from beginning of coryza symptoms, usually 2 days before rash. Effect in later years on retina of the eye and upon kidneys is frequently sufficient to cause death. Middle ear infections, chronic weak eyes, and serious handicaps for school children follow in many cases.
WHOOPING–COUGH	Persistent cough, spasmodic. Characteristic whoop 2 weeks after onset. Spasms of coughing often ending in vomiting. Slight temperature.	Discharges sprayed or thrown from mouth or nose in coughing, sneezing or spitting. Direct contact with infected persons.	Exclude for minimum of 14 days.	This disease is infectious ONLY during the first 2 weeks of the characteristic cough. It frequently predisposes to broncho-pneumonia and is particularly fatal to infants. Immunity can be established by the use of vaccine.
CHICKEN–POX	Onset gradual. May be no symptoms before eruption. Slight fever. Eruption may be on covered portions of body.	Discharges from lesions of the skin. Direct contact with infected persons.	Exclude until all scabs and scales have disappeared. Minimum period 2 weeks.	Children must not be allowed to return to school until all scales and crusts have disappeared and there is complete restoration of continuity of the skin. Be sure to examine the scalp.
MUMPS	Fever, pain and swelling at angle of jaw just in front of lower lobe of the ear. Stiffness of jaws.	Discharges sprayed or thrown from mouth or nose in coughing, sneezing or spitting. Direct contact with infected persons. Indirect contact by cups, spoons, etc.	Exclude until no swelling or tenderness of parotid gland is present. Minimum period 14 days.	Mumps is very infectious and the saliva transports the infectious agent.
GERMAN MEASLES	Only slight illness, rash first noticed. No symptoms of cold. Slight fever. Enlarged glands back of ears.	Discharges sprayed or thrown from mouth or nose in coughing, sneezing or spitting. Direct contact with infected persons.	Exclude until complete clinical recovery. Minimum period 8 days.	German measles is a mild disease with few complications.

EXCLUSION FROM SCHOOL

DISEASE	CHILDREN LIVING IN SAME HOME AS CASE		CHILDREN NOT LIVING IN HOME WITH CASE BUT EXPOSED AT SCHOOL	
	IMMUNE	SUSCEPTIBLE	IMMUNE	SUSCEPTIBLE
DIPHTHERIA	May be instructed, disinfected, and released to live elsewhere, provided two series of nose and throat cultures taken 24 hours apart fail to show the presence of diphtheria bacilli. May return to school immediately and remain at school while cultures are being made.	May have some privileges same as "Immune" EXCEPT they must be excluded from school until negative reports are received from the cultures.	Should remain in school.	Nose and throat should be cultured. Carriers excluded. Schick test used to determine immunity. Toxin-antitoxin mixture should be given to establish immunity.
SCARLET FEVER	May be instructed, disinfected, and released to live elsewhere and may then return to school immediately.	If never in quarantine, may return to school one week after last possible exposure. If in quarantine must be excluded for the full period of the quarantine.	Should remain in school.	Should be examined daily for the early signs and symptoms for one week after last possible exposure.
SMALLPOX	May be instructed, disinfected, and released to live elsewhere and may then return to school immediately.	If never in quarantine, must be excluded for three weeks from last possible exposure or be successfully vaccinated. If in quarantine, must be excluded for the period of the quarantine, unless successfully vaccinated.	Should remain in school.	Should be excluded from school for 21 days after last possible exposure or successfully vaccinated in the past five years.
POLIO–MYELITIS	May be instructed, disinfected, and released to live elsewhere and may then return to school immediately.	If never in quarantine, must be excluded for one week after last possible exposure. If in quarantine, must be excluded for one week after release from quarantine.	Should remain in school.	Should be examined daily for early signs and symptoms for one week after last possible exposure.

CEREBRO-SPINAL MENINGITIS	May be instructed, disinfected, and released to live elsewhere and may then return to school immediately.	If never in quarantine, must be excluded for one week after last possible exposure. If in quarantine, must be excluded for one week after release from quarantine.	Should remain in school.	Should be examined daily for early signs and symptoms for one week after last possible exposure.
MEASLES	Should not be excluded from school.	Exclude for the same period as infected person.	Should remain in school.	Should be examined daily for early signs and symptoms for two weeks after last possible exposure.
WHOOPING-COUGH	Should not be excluded from school.	Exclude for the same period as infected person.	Should remain in school.	Should be examined daily for early signs and symptoms for two weeks after last possible exposure.
CHICKEN-POX	Should not be excluded from school.	Exclude for the same period as infected person.	Should remain in school.	Should be examined daily for early signs and symptoms for two weeks after last possible exposure.
MUMPS	Should not be excluded from school.	Exclude for the same period as infected person.	Should remain in school.	Should be examined daily for early signs and symptoms for two weeks after last possible exposure.
GERMAN MEASLES	Should not be excluded from school.	Exclude for the same period as infected person.	Should remain in school.	Should be examined daily for early signs and symptoms for eight days after last possible exposure.

IMPETIGO–FAVUS—"SORES"

Impetigo are sores which soon form loose scales. Very contagious. Child should use separate towels. Exclude from school until his condition is such that the disease cannot be transmitted to others.

RINGWORM

Begins as a small, reddish, scaly patch. It gradually increases in size. Meanwhile the central, or oldest, part recovers and characteristic ring-like appearance results.

Located on the face, wrists, neck, and hands. Treatment should be under the care of a physician.

Exclude from school until condition is such that the disease cannot be transmitted to others.

PEDICULOSIS, OR HEAD LICE

School children with head lice should be excluded from school until no live lice can be found on very close inspection. School children with nits may attend school, provided they are under vigorous treatment for their removal. Consult a physician as to proper treatment.

SCABIES, OR ITCH

An infectious eruption found most frequently on the palms of the hand and between the fingers. Quite contagious, especially to others in the family. Exclude from school until the condition is such that the disease cannot be transmitted to others. Treatment should be under the care of a physician.

(*c*) Hacking throat cough.
(*d*) Frequent nosebleeds.
(*e*) Dark rings under the eyes.
(*f*) Narrow upper jaw and protruding teeth.
(*g*) Stuffy speech—"dose" for "nose."
(*h*) Poor eyesight
(*i*) Poor hearing.
(*j*) Nervousness.
(*k*) Snores and terrific throat noises in sleep.
(*l*) Tumbling and tossing in sleep.

If a considerable number of these evidences appear a good physician should see each case. Parents should be talked to tactfully. Teachers should learn all they can about this question and then help the parents to understand the dangers of inaction.

Malnutrition.—Malnutrition is a serious health defect in children. Most all of the children who are 10 per

cent or more underweight for height and age are handicapped from *malnutrition*. Twenty per cent of all school children are malnourished. Rural health surveys have proven beyond a doubt that rural children suffer more than city children because of being undernourished. Again this is a management question, and the teacher must ever be on the alert to help drive away this spectre by holding up ideals in the supervised lunch hour and in her discussions with parents. Malnutrition is not limited to the slums or poorer homes. Many times the best homes experience such difficulties, not because of poor foods but improper mastication and hurried eating.

Evidences that may be read by teacher and parent:

(*a*) Lack of ambition and vitality.
(*b*) Flabby muscles.
(*c*) Anæmia.
(*d*) Underweight.
(*e*) Lessened resistance against many kinds of diseases.
(*f*) Easily fatigued.

As suggested above, this is a problem that must be worked out through the noon lunch. Such ideals as: (*a*) Proper food chewed thoroughly, eaten regularly, and never hurriedly. (*b*) Some fruit or well-cooked vegetables every day. (*c*) Plenty of sleep and rest. A careful observance of the health chores in Crusade Chores would help solve this difficulty. It would be well if teachers could plan to weigh their children once a month and keep records, thus interesting the children in the problem. A rural teacher could borrow a farmer's scales if it were not possible to have a set for the school.

The following plans for keeping height and weight records, and the tables for height and weight of boys and

girls, have been found very helpful. These are published with the permission of Doctor Thomas D. Wood of New York City, chairman of the Committee on Health Problems in Education.

NATIONAL COUNCIL, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

NAME	AGE	HEIGHT	NORMAL WEIGHT	YEAR (1924) ACTUAL WEIGHT									
				SEPT.	OCT.	NOV.	DEC.	JAN.	FEB.	MAR.	APR.	MAY	JUNE

Poor Eyesight.—Poor eyesight is a very serious handicap to many children. The difficulty is that the same children who suffer from eye-strain and poor vision are the ones usually who suffer from adenoids and malnutrition. Teachers should watch for difficulties here, and if such individuals are found their parents should be urged to consult a physician.

Evidences that may be read by teachers and parents:

(*a*) Headache, commonly through forehead or back of head, or both.

(*b*) Inability to see blackboard.

(*c*) Nervous exhaustion.

HEIGHT AND WEIGHT TABLE FOR BOYS

HEIGHT INCHES	5 YRS.	6 YRS.	7 YRS.	8 YRS.	9 YRS.	10 YRS.	11 YRS.	12 YRS.	13 YRS.	14 YRS.	15 YRS.	16 YRS.	17 YRS.	18 YRS.
39	35	36	37											
40	37	38	39											
41	39	40	41											
42	41	42	43	44										
43	43	44	45	46										
44	45	46	46	47										
45	47	47	48	48	49									
46	48	49	50	50	51									
47	.....	51	52	52	53	54								
48	.....	53	54	55	55	56	57							
49	.....	55	56	57	58	58	59							
50	.....	.....	58	59	60	60	61	62						
51	.....	.....	60	61	62	63	64	65						
52	.....	.....	62	63	64	65	67	68						
53	.....	.....	.....	66	67	68	69	70	71					
54	.....	.....	.....	69	70	71	72	73	74					
55	.....	.....	.....	.....	73	74	75	76	77	78				
56	.....	.....	.....	.....	77	78	79	80	81	82				
57	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	81	82	83	84	85	86			
58	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	84	85	86	87	88	90	91		
59	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	87	88	89	90	92	94	96	97	
60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	91	92	93	94	97	99	101	102	
61	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	95	97	99	102	104	106	108	110
62	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	102	104	106	109	111	113	116
63	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	105	107	109	111	114	115	117	119
64	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	113	115	117	118	119	120	122
65	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	120	122	123	124	125	126
66	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	125	126	127	128	129	130
67	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	130	131	132	133	134	135
68	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	134	135	136	137	138	139
69	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	138	139	140	141	142	143
70	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	142	144	145	146	147
71	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	147	149	150	151	152
72	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	152	154	155	156	157
73	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	157	159	160	161	162
74	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	162	164	165	166	167
75	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	169	170	171	172
76	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	174	175	176	177

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(*d*) Winking frequently and squeezing the eyelids shut.

(*e*) Muscular twitching of face.

Teachers should make every effort possible to detect poor eyes. Any eye specialist would be glad to furnish distance vision test-cards, with complete directions for use, if teachers would make their wants known. If

HEIGHT AND WEIGHT TABLE FOR GIRLS

HEIGHT INCHES	5 YRS.	6 YRS.	7 YRS.	8 YRS.	9 YRS.	10 YRS.	11 YRS.	12 YRS.	13 YRS.	14 YRS.	15 YRS.	16 YRS.	17 YRS.	18 YRS.
39	34	35	36											
40	36	37	38											
41	38	39	40											
42	40	41	42	43										
43	42	42	43	44										
44	44	45	45	46										
45	46	47	47	48	49									
46	48	48	49	50	51									
47	.....	49	50	51	52	53								
48	.....	51	52	53	54	55	56							
49	.....	53	54	55	56	57	58							
50	.....	.....	56	57	58	59	60	61						
51	.....	.....	59	60	61	62	63	64						
52	.....	.....	62	63	64	65	66	67						
53	.....	.....	.....	66	67	68	68	69	70					
54	.....	.....	.....	68	69	70	71	72	73					
55	.....	.....	.....	.....	72	73	74	75	76	77				
56	.....	.....	.....	.....	76	77	78	79	80	81				
57	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	81	82	83	84	85	86			
58	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	85	86	87	88	89	90	91		
59	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	89	90	91	93	94	95	96	98	
60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	94	95	97	99	100	102	104	106
61	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	99	101	102	104	106	108	109	111
62	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	104	106	107	109	111	113	114	115
63	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	109	111	112	113	115	117	118	119
64	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	115	117	118	119	120	121	122
65	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	117	119	120	122	123	124	125
66	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	119	121	122	124	126	127	128
67	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	124	126	127	128	129	130
68	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	126	128	130	132	133	134
69	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	129	131	133	135	136	137
70	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	134	136	138	139	140
71	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	138	140	142	143	144
72	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	145	147	148	149

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such a card cannot be secured, a calendar with big type such as are given by many banks and business houses could be used. This calendar will have various sizes of figures and letters and can be used to a good advantage. The teacher can stage this as a game, and after several trials she will discover those with poor vision.

Poor Hearing.—Medical authorities declare that the foundations of deafness in later life are, in most instances,

ABOUT WHAT A BOY SHOULD GAIN EACH MONTH

AGE	
5 to 8	6 oz.
8 to 12	8 oz.
12 to 14	12 oz.
14 to 16	16 oz.
16 to 18	8 oz.

ABOUT WHAT A GIRL SHOULD GAIN EACH MONTH

AGE	
5 to 8	6 oz.
8 to 11	8 oz.
11 to 14	12 oz.
14 to 16	8 oz.
16 to 18	4 oz.

Try and do as much better than the average as you can.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

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Height and weight to be taken in house clothes, without shoes. Weight on the same day each month. Age the nearest birthday. Each child to enter his own weight.

laid in childhood. What is said about poor eyesight could be said here about poor hearing.

Evidences that may be read by teachers and parents:

(*a*) Child inattentive and listless.

(*b*) Child needs to have assignments or directions repeated very often.

(*c*) Mentally backward.

(*d*) Retarded in school work.

(*e*) Frequent earache.

Teachers can discover poor hearing by a very simple game. Blindfold the pupil and let him locate a clock or watch held at different distances from his right or

left ear. Several "games" of this nature will locate those who cannot hear well.

Up to this time not much has been said as to what should be done about these four difficulties. Teachers can do nothing more than point out the conditions of children to their parents, and then use every influence that is just to get parents to give their children medical attention. If there is a county nurse with whom the teacher may work the results may be reached much sooner.

The teacher can further the cause of health by discussing quarantine laws with the children. A good lesson in citizenship can be worked out in connection with this topic.

What the School Can Do

Co-operate in County Play Days and Health Pageants.—These are two very important factors in health work, and the teacher should welcome an opportunity to participate in them. The county superintendent of schools will often organize play days on a county-wide scale. Give your superintendent enthusiastic support in this matter. Health projects may vary from a simple play by the primary pupils to a community health day. Pageants worked up in school may be used in a community program.

Co-operate With Health Authorities.—School boards and teachers can do very effective work in helping health officers and medical inspectors.

Epidemics occur every day with about the same regularity as Christmas and New Year's. Where these contagions occur fumigation is necessary. School boards and teachers should make it as easy as possible for the

administering of such precautions. As has been suggested in the communicable disease chart, school authorities should co-operate with health officers in keeping children out of school who have contagious diseases.

It would be well for school boards and county superintendents to place the following health rules in every schoolroom. This is taken from Doctor Wood's health education report.

Ten Golden Rules for School Children

I. Play hard and fair—be loyal to your team mates and generous to your opponents.

II. Eat slowly. Do not eat between meals. Chew food thoroughly. Never drink water when there is food in the mouth. Drink water several times during the day.

III. Brush your teeth at least once a day. Rinse your mouth out well with water after each meal.

IV. Be sure your bowels move at least once each day.

V. Keep clean—body, clothes, and mind. Wash your hands always before eating. Take a warm bath with soap once or twice a week; a cool sponge (or shower) bath each morning before breakfast, and rub your body to a glow with a rough towel.

VI. Try to keep your companions, especially young children, away from those who have contagious diseases.

VII. Use your handkerchief to cover a sneeze or cough, and try to avoid coughing, sneezing, or blowing your nose in front of others.

VIII. Study hard—and in study, work, or play do your best.

IX. Sleep: Get as many hours in bed each night as this table indicates for your age. Keep windows in bedroom well open.

HOURS OF SLEEP FOR DIFFERENT AGES

AGE	HOURS OF SLEEP
5 to 6	13
6 to 8	12
8 to 10	11½
10 to 12	11
12 to 14	10½
14 to 16	10
16 to 18	9½

X. Be cheerful, and do your best to keep your school and your home clean and attractive and to make the world a better place in which to live.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How would you proceed to work out a constructive program for health training in your school? Work out such a program covering a year's time.
2. Demonstrate with students in your class just how you administer simple tests in vision and hearing.
3. Suppose that you have discovered a child with adenoids. How would you proceed? Give a complete analysis of the steps you would take. If you think writing a note to the parent sufficient, write such note.
4. What are the laws of your State bearing on the health of the school child? What are the more important rules of your State Board of Health?
5. What steps must be taken by the teacher when she discovers a child has a contagious disease?
6. Prepare a health pageant for a primary grade.
7. What is the relation of the daily program to health?
8. Rural surveys indicate that rural children possess more physical defects than city children. How do you account for this?

9. What part has ignorance played in the health of humanity? Explain fully.
10. Give arguments for and against compulsory medical inspection in public schools.

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CHAPTER XV

CITIZENSHIP

The urgent need for teaching citizenship to our boys and girls at the earliest practicable moment in their schooling is now generally recognized. Through the World War the problem has been brought into general consideration. If civic training is to be effective, it should begin with the child's entrance in school and should be continuous and persistent.

True American ideals must be created in the minds of the American youth while they are in the public schools.

The Teacher's Responsibility.—There is a growing opinion not only that citizenship should be taught in all of the elementary grades but also that it should be taught in a new way. The old traditional study of the machinery of government with much emphasis on constitutions is both tedious and ineffectual. Instead, the child should be recognized as a young citizen. He is a member of the community and its most important institutions, viz., the home, the school, and the church. He will always be a member of some social community. The teacher, then, should understand that the school is the most efficient means in training pupils for this social citizenship. It is in school, very largely, that the pupil must acquire those social habits which make him a good citizen. In fact, no school is a good school in which habits of politeness, courtesy, honesty, and fairness are not taught. The teaching of these habits is

largely a management problem. They cannot be taught in set lessons, but must be acquired through daily and hourly practice in all of the school's activities.

If the school is properly organized and conducted it becomes a powerful factor in the forming of right habits by the pupils.

Citizenship Through Good Management

No attempt is here made to offer a course of study for the teaching of citizenship. Neither is it the purpose to give suggestions on the formal teaching of the subject. The topics which follow are discussed, first, because they are very closely and definitely related to the management of the school, and second, because they are each and all important factors in the making of good citizens.

Obedience.—The child has been taught obedience at home. In school, however, he meets with it in a new way. His failure to obey there concerns not only himself and the teacher but the entire school. Obedience at school should be the beginning of the adult's respect for law and order. The school, then, is the connecting link between the home and the community. The pupil should be led to obey promptly, completely, and cheerfully. While a child at first will obey because he is told to do so, it should be the teacher's aim to inspire him to obey, first, to please her, and later, because a voice from within tells him that he should do it.

Cleanliness.—This topic is mentioned not from the standpoint of personal hygiene, but because of its importance as a social factor. A visit to several schools will impress the visitor with the teacher's influence in this matter. The children in one school will be taught

to wash their hands and faces and to brush their hair after the noonday play. The very atmosphere there breathes self-respect and happiness. In another school, no attention is given by the teacher to the pupils' personal cleanliness, and there is an evident lack of that self-respect and happiness. Of course it should not be necessary to say that the teacher's own personal appearance is, perhaps, the greatest influence in the development of the pupils' habits of cleanliness.

Orderliness.—This topic is closely related to cleanliness. Again the teacher may set the standards. Her desk should be a model for the pupil's desk. There should be "a place for everything, and everything in its place." The writer has in mind a teacher who completely changed the entire atmosphere of a school by "tidying up" the interior of an old school building. Every pupil in that school seemed anxious to keep his desk orderly so that it would fit into the general scheme of the room. Such habits thoroughly instilled during school life are sure to function for good citizenship in adult life. A boy thus trained, when he becomes a farmer, will not permit obnoxious weeds along his roadside to become a nuisance to his neighbors.

Punctuality.—The success of school depends in a large measure upon the manner in which all of the pupils are "pulling together" with the teacher. Each pupil should feel that he is a cog in the wheel. If he fails, the machine fails also. To come late to his task interferes with the work of all the others. And so it is in life. Imagine an important public meeting. The time set for opening the meeting has arrived, and the citizens are all there except the chairman. He comes thirty minutes late. Can he be considered a "good" citizen?

Helping One Another.—We have been told by people of other lands that the American spirit is one of selfishness; that we are a nation of "money grabbers." Of course, we do not believe that such is true. We claim that our nation can point with pride to more great deeds of unselfishness than any other nation in the history of the world. But if we wish to maintain this altruistic spirit and to improve upon it, we must begin by instilling in the hearts of the boys and girls in school the desire to be helpful to others. The teacher should encourage the pupils to be helpful to her in little tasks which they can perform, and to be helpful to each other. They should be taught to be "good neighbors."

Good Manners.—"Manners are of more importance than laws. Upon them, in a great measure, the laws depend. According to their quality they aid morals; they supply them or they totally destroy them." The teacher cannot too strongly feel her responsibility in training her pupils in good manners. In fact, she must assume a large responsibility here. In the home the child's experiences are largely within the family circle. At school he makes his first real public appearance. Here he meets other boys and girls of perhaps widely different home training and past experience. He must be taught to treat them all with courtesy and sympathy. Again, the teacher's example will count for more than her teaching. She must emphasize that good manners come through a proper attitude, and therefore must come from within.

Truthfulness.—The teacher has many opportunities for teaching the lesson of truthfulness. In chapter XIX, on "Discipline," it is said that the one rule which every teacher should endeavor to establish for her pupils is

the rule to "Do Right." If a pupil is to obey that rule he must be truthful. Children should be impressed with the fact that the business of the world depends upon truthfulness. We expect the grocer to tell the truth when he tells us the price of sugar. The child expects others to be truthful to him. He would deeply resent an untruth on the part of the teacher. He would not study his text-books if he believed that they were not truthful. The teacher should impress upon her pupils the evil effects upon a child who forms the habit of lying. Will any one want such a person for a friend?

Honesty.—To be honest means more than to be truthful. It means to do thorough work as well as to speak the truth. To put the interests of others on a level with your own. It is "that sense of right which makes it impossible to take or use that which does not rightly belong to us." Is the child honest when he copies his lesson from another pupil and presents it as his own? What should a child do on finding a lost article? What should he do if he breaks a borrowed article? In each case he should be shown the effect of his present attitude on such questions upon his success in life when he leaves school. "Honest Abe Lincoln" appeals to children. They should be shown that it was his honesty which made him one of the greatest of American citizens of all time.

Courage.—It takes courage to be a good citizen. Courage to serve your country not only in time of war but also in times of peace. At school the child should be led to develop his courage by overcoming timidity, by enduring pain when hurt upon the playground, and by acting and speaking the truth regardless of consequences. One of the greatest lessons that every child

has to learn is to dare to stand alone if his own conscience tells him he is right. A teacher should never fail to highly commend a pupil for such courage.

Fair Play.—Play when properly directed by the teacher affords the best opportunity for teaching the true "American spirit." Every boy and girl should learn to "play fair," to "obey the rules," and to accept the "umpire's" decision. No bullies or cheats should be permitted. The teacher of a one-room country school should especially insist upon fair play. She frequently has one or two pupils who are considerably older or larger than the rest of the school. They often become veritable dictators if the teacher is not there to insist on "equality for all."

Care of Property.—Many opportunities present themselves for teaching the child the right attitude toward property. Children often think it a sign of "smartness" to destroy or mar property. They should be shown that the needless destruction of it always means a loss to some one, and that the formation of such habits is detrimental to society in general. If the value of all public property needlessly destroyed in one year could be known it would be truly astounding. Unfortunately our schools must share a large part of that loss. May it be true that this loss is due, in a measure, to the failure of schools in the past to properly train the young citizens?

Industry and Thrift.—The boy or girl who acquires habits of industry and thrift possesses two very essential elements in the making of a good citizen. No nation can long endure if its citizens are shiftless and thriftless. The school can do much to help develop the right habits. Pupils should be encouraged not only to be diligent but

also to persevere when the task is difficult. Examples of men and women who have achieved success because of their industry and thrift should be given to the pupils. Such men and women are better citizens because of their independence and freedom of action. We have need to fear the "political" boss only when he holds a "whip-hand" over those whom he controls.

Patriotism.—Every teacher should strive to cultivate in the mind of each pupil a spirit of loyalty to our country and a genuine love for it. Our experiences during the World War led us to recognize that in our national and educational life we had given too little attention to patriotism as one essential element in the characters of our growing boys and girls. Children are naturally patriotic. They respond readily if the appeal is made to them. This was thoroughly demonstrated during the recent war. The accomplishments of the school children in the thrift campaigns, Junior Red Cross work, and other war activities will always stand as one of the bright spots in American history. The opening exercise period should be freely used for this purpose. Since it is sometimes difficult for teachers to secure helpful material for opening exercises, the following helps are offered with the hope that they may be of service.*

Lessons in Patriotism

I. Our Flag

The following dialogue is suggested for a lesson on the flag.

Who would like to hold the flag this morning?

Has our flag always been as it is to-day?

* The authors are indebted to Mrs. Mary E. Bond, principal of the school at Cedar Heights, Iowa, for this material.

How many stars in it? Why?
How many stripes in it? Why?
Tell the story of Betsy Ross. (See "History of Our Flag" below.) Poem: "The American Flag."

"Tell me, who can, about our flag
With its red and white and blue;
How came it to have so many stars,
And of pretty stripes so few.

The thirteen stripes are for thirteen States
That first into union came,
For each new State we have added a star,
But have kept the stripes the same."

Let us stand and give the flag salute.

I give my head, my heart, and my hand to God and my country; one country, one language, and one flag.

(Salute.)
Let us pledge allegiance to the flag.

I pledge allegiance to my flag, and to the republic for which it stands, one nation indivisible with liberty and justice to all.

(Salute.)
Sing "Star Spangled Banner."

HISTORY OF OUR FLAG

On June 14, 1777, Congress passed the following resolution:

Resolved, That the flag of the thirteen United States be thirteen stripes, alternate red and white; that the union be thirteen stars, white in a blue field, representing a new constellation.

The adoption of this resolution was the beginning of the authentic history of our American flag.

In explaining the design of our flag, Washington himself said:

> We take the star from heaven, the red from our Mother Country, separating it by white stripes, thus showing that we have separated from her, and the white stripes shall go down to posterity representing liberty.

The thirteen stars in the flag adopted by Congress were arranged in a circle to signify union and eternal endurance, the circle being the symbol of eternity.

The first "Stars and Stripes" flag was made by Mrs. Elizabeth Ross, of Philadelphia. The drawing from which Mrs. Ross worked was made by George Washington, and it contained stars with six points. Mrs. Ross suggested the use of the five-pointed star instead of the six-pointed English-design star.

It was accepted by the committee and adopted by Congress for the "Stars and Stripes."

For some time Mrs. Ross was the official flag-maker appointed by the government.

From 1777 to 1795 the flag bore thirteen stars and thirteen stripes; from 1795 to 1818, fifteen stars and fifteen stripes; from 1818 to 1819, a star for every State and thirteen stripes. To-day there are forty-eight stars.

THE FLAG GOES BY

"Hats off!
Along the street there comes
A blare of bugles, a ruffle of drums,
A flash of color beneath the sky.
Hats off!
The flag is passing by."

—HENRY HOLCOMB BENNETT.

Poem: "Your Flag and My Flag."

"Your flag and my flag
And how it flies to-day,
In your hand and my hand,
And half a world away!
Rose-red and blood-red
The stripes forever gleam;
Snow-white and soul-white—
The good forefathers' dream;
Sky-blue and true-blue, with stars to gleam aright,
The gloried guidon of the day; a shelter through the night.

Your flag and my flag!
To every star and stripe
The drums beat as hearts beat,
And fifers shrilly pipe.
Your flag and my flag—
A blessing in the sky;
Your hope and my hope,
It never hid a lie;
Home-land and far-land, and half the world around,
Old Glory hears our glad salute and ripples to the sound!

Your flag and my flag
And, oh, how much it holds—
Your land and my land—
Secure within its folds.
Your heart and my heart
Beat quicker at the sight,
Sun-kissed and wind-tossed—
Red and blue and white,
The one flag—the great flag—the flag for me and you—
Glorified all else beside—the red and white and blue."

THE LITTLE CHILDREN'S CREED

I am a Little Citizen of the United States, and I believe in my country, my school, and my flag. I believe that I can serve my country best by attending school every day and by endeavoring to become intelligent, honest, and efficient.

I believe that my country gives to me the same rights and privileges that she can give to any one, and that it is my duty to cultivate my talents and to enrich my life that I may better serve her interests.

I believe that my flag stands for honor, truth, and justice in all things and that God is with us.

—M. E. THOMPSON.

II. My Duty to My Country

Discuss duty to country; duty of intelligence and loyalty.

Our country is a free country—a democracy.

By a free country we do not mean a country in which people may do as they please. A person is not free because he does what he likes, but he is free because he is loyal, obedient, and does what he ought.

In a country like ours, where the people rule, do their own thinking, and make their own laws, what kind of citizens should each of us be?

Yes, we should be the most intelligent, loyal, and trustworthy men and women, boys and girls. You know a school is just as good and clean as the individual boys and girls who attend it; so a country is just as strong and great as the people composing it.

You can help to make your country strong and great by each of you making the most out of yourself; not for your own sake but for the sake of all.

Teach:

I believe it my duty to my country to love it; to support its Constitution; to honor its flag; to obey its laws, and to defend it against all enemies.

—WILLIAM TYLER PAGE.

Sing "America."

III. Qualities of Great Men

Aim: Let this lesson call attention to some of the particularly admirable qualities of our great men. Tell, or have some one tell, a story to illustrate Lincoln's honesty. (The grocery store story.) Tell a story to illustrate Washington's honesty. (The story of his mother's colt.) Have some incidents related that show kindness. (Lincoln helping the pig out of the mud.) Add others. In the same way study the quality of courage or bravery.

Teach:

"I'd like to be the sort of man the flag could boast about;
I'd like to be the sort of man it cannot live without;
I'd like to be the type of man that really is American:
The head erect and shoulders square,
Clean-minded fellow, just and fair,
That all men picture when they see the glorious banner of the free.

I'd like to be the sort of man the flag now typifies,
The kind of man we really want the flag to symbolize;
The loyal brother to a trust, the big unselfish soul and just,
The friend of every man oppressed, the strong support of all that's best,
The sturdy chap the banner's meant, where'er it flies, to represent.

I'd like to be the sort of man the flag's supposed to mean,
The man that all in fancy see wherever it is seen,
The chap that's ready for a fight whenever there's a wrong to right,
The friend in every time of need, the doer of a daring deed,
The clean and generous-handed man that is a real American."

Note: Make the learning of a poem always pleasurable, never a punishment. As far as possible see that children have the thought of a poem before teaching the

lines. Children, as well as their elders, enjoy finding fitting and pleasing expressions of thought they have had.

IV. How to Fly the American Flag

The flag should not be hoisted before sunrise or be allowed up after sunset.

At "morning and evening colors" at forts and military posts civilian spectators should stand at attention and uncover during the playing of "The Star Spangled Banner."

The flag should never be allowed to touch the ground, and should never be raised or lowered by any mechanical appliance.

When the national and State or other flags are flown together, the national flag should be on the right side of the building or lawn.

When the flag is used as a banner, that is, suspended upon a rope across a street, the union, or field, should fly to the north in streets running east and west, and to the east in streets running north and south.

The flag should always be flown from a staff or a mast, and should not be fastened to the side of a building, platform, or scaffolding.

When flags are used in an unveiling of a statue or monument, they should not be allowed to fall to the ground, but should be carried aloft to wave out, forming a distinctive feature during the remainder of the ceremony.

When the flag is flown at half-staff as a sign of mourning, it should be hoisted to full-staff at the end of the funeral. To fly a flag at half-staff, it must first be raised to full-staff and then lowered. On Memorial Day the

flag should fly at half-staff from sunrise to noon, and full-staff from noon to sunset.

The following are the days when the flag should be displayed:

Lincoln's Birthday—February 12th.
Washington's Birthday—February 22d.
Inauguration Day—(Every four years) March 4th.
Mothers' Day—Second Sunday in May.
Memorial Day—(Half-staff until noon) May 30th.
Flag Day—June 14th.
Battle of Bunker Hill—June 17th.
Independence Day—July 4th.
Labor Day—First Monday in September.
Columbus Day—October 12th.
Surrender of Yorktown—October 19th.
Armistice Day—November 11th.

V. A Good American Citizen

(*a*) *Good Americans love their country.*

Discuss reasons for loving our country.

Our country, Uncle Sam, is the best kind of father to us all. In some countries the people are always afraid of enemies who might come and take away or destroy their property. We are not afraid of that, for Uncle Sam would call out an army of soldiers to protect us and to punish all of those who would try to do us harm.

Uncle Sam provides schools so that all the children in the land may go and receive an education. In some countries only the boys and girls whose parents are very rich can go to school. Schools cost a great deal of money. Uncle Sam, representing the American people, gives the schools to the children free.

Uncle Sam looks out for us in all kinds of ways.

The letters that we write he carries hundreds of miles.

Our country has such good soil for raising food, we have never had a famine.

Our country is rich in coal and iron and silver and gold.

We want to obey Uncle Sam's laws because they are all made to protect and help us.

We should love our country more than ourselves. A good American citizen will not enrich himself at his country's expense.

Children repeat "My Own United States."

"I love every inch of her prairie land,
Every stone of her mountain side,
I love every drop of the water clear
That flows in her rivers wide.
I love every tree, every blade of grass,
Within Columbia's gates;
The Queen of the Earth is the land of my birth,
My own United States."

(*b*) *Good Americans love their country's flag.*

Show that our flag is the emblem of all the good things Uncle Sam provides for us—liberty, education, and protection.

Discuss the care of our flag.

The flag should never be allowed to touch the ground.

The flag should never be draped around pillars or against walls or balustrades.

Do not use the flag as a cover over a table, desk, or box, or where anything can be placed on it.

The flags were made originally for the purpose of being flown, and to use them in any other manner is to misuse them.

Never throw into the street a worn-out or discarded flag.

Recite the flag salute.

Pledge your allegiance to the flag.

Who can recite "Hats Off"?

All stand and repeat "Your Flag and My Flag."

Sing "Star Spangled Banner."

(*c*) *A good American must master the English language.*

Are there any here who have never made a mistake either in speaking or writing our language?

(Discuss the difficulty in learning to speak and write the English language correctly.)

If it is difficult for us to learn our mother tongue, how much more difficult it is for the foreign child.

Do you think foreigners should come to our country and then keep on speaking their own tongue and make no effort to learn our English language?

It will be difficult for them to learn our language, and how may we help them?

(By repeating words and phrases slowly to them; by telling them the English names of things and places and people; by not laughing and jeering at their mistakes; by keeping our language pure, free from misuse or abuse in all that we speak or write.)

If we wish the foreigner to learn our language and become American we must teach him to love America, to feel himself a part of it, to thrill at the sight of the flag and the strains of "My Country, 'Tis of Thee."

We should strive to master the English language, because it is the language of our country and the language of our forefathers; it has preserved for us a record of all the best things that our ancestors have thought or done.

(*d*) *An American must love liberty.*

(The purpose of this lesson is to show that in this great republic, which is lighted by the torch of liberty, each person must take account of his duties and obligations as well as his rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.)

Discuss with the children the meaning of liberty.

Does it mean to do as one pleases? Not unless that one please to do what he ought, having in mind full regard for the rights of others.

Discuss liberty in a good home.

The child is early taught that while he enjoys the privileges of food, shelter, clothing, and kind treatment in the home, these things are to be shared with the family, and that these rights bring also certain obligations. Each child should do his part in the home in the way of showing courtesy to others, obedience to parents, and by being helpful and cheerful.

Our country is only our larger home, and we have seen that Uncle Sam does much for us. If he were really our own kind uncle we should not be satisfied to have him do all, because we would want to do something for him. I wonder if there is anything we can do in return for his care of us. Every man who owns something in this country should be willing to pay Uncle Sam for protecting it, whether it be a farm, a house in town, an automobile, or a dog, because without this protection the man's property would not be safe. This money which should be paid to Uncle Sam in return for the protection of property is called taxes, and we should be willing to pay them cheerfully.

It is in the time of war especially that Uncle Sam must ask us for help. He sent out a call for our boys and men between the ages of twenty-one and thirty-one,

and they responded as loyal citizens should. They gave up their work and bade goodby to mother, father, wife, and children, and home, and crossed the ocean at Uncle Sam's bidding. It proved necessary that some of them give up even their lives in the struggle in order that we might be safe over here, and they did this without flinching. We must be as loyal and willing to do our part as they. Although we may not be called upon to pay our lives for our country, we are asked to be loyal and to give our money to help keep up expenses.

Will you think of some ways in which we are asked to contribute? (Buy thrift stamps, bonds, and pay taxes.) How small these things are in comparison with the many privileges we enjoy here in America. We should be glad to give what Uncle Sam asks of us or more, too, if we are able.

Sing "America."

(*e*) *A good American must serve his country every day.* How?

1. Keep clean.
2. Keep well.
3. Be cheerful.
4. Be prompt.
5. Be helpful.
6. Be kind.
7. Work.
8. Save.
9. Share.
10. Fair play.
11. Be clean-minded.
12. Be good.

Discuss the relation of each of the above points to serving one's country. Namely, the soldiers accepted by Uncle Sam were those who were clean and well. Cheerfulness helps us to keep well and to work and to play better. Only prompt people can be depended upon to perform a service. Helpfulness and kindness are only being polite and courteous to others, and such people

give the best service to their country. We work to have and save and share. We are good Americans only when we play fair with each other and with Uncle Sam.

Clean-minded people have clean thoughts and clean mouths. Being good is acting so well that older people do not have to worry about you.

Quotations

"Just the best that you can do,
Is the service asked of you."

Get ready and the chance will come.—LINCOLN.

THE WORTH OF A BOY

"Some value a boy by the work he can do,
At the house, at the barn, and the woodpile, too.
Some count up the cost of his board and his clothes
And doubt if he pays for his keep, I suppose.
The work is all right—he should do what he can;
But the worth of the boy is in making the man."

AM I DOING MY PART?

I am one little instrument in the Great Orchestra of life, and I must see to it that I am always in tune and don't drag or hit false notes.

THRIFT WISDOM

Economy makes happy homes and sound nations. Instill it deep.—GEORGE WASHINGTON.

Teach economy. That is one of the first and highest virtues. It begins with saving money.—ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

No boy ever became great as a man who did not in his youth learn to save money.—JOHN WANAMAKER.

Above all, teach the children to save; economy is the sure foundation for all virtues.—VICTOR HUGO.

Save and teach all you are interested in to save; thus pave the way for moral and material success.—THOMAS JEFFERSON.

Go to the ant, thou sluggard; consider her ways, and be wise; which, having no guide, overseer, or ruler, provideth her meat in the summer, and gathereth her food in the harvest.

—THE BIBLE.

AMERICA FOR ME

"So it's home again and home again, America for me!
My heart is turning home again, and there I long to be,
In the land of youth and freedom beyond the ocean bars,
Where the air is full of sunlight and the flag is full of stars."

—HENRY VAN DYKE.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. A boy while playing breaks, through carelessness, a window at school. How may this be used by the teacher as a lesson in citizenship?
2. To what public official would you compare the umpire in a ball game?
3. The teacher, just before the recess period, has the pupils vote on the game they wish to play. Three of the fifteen refuse to participate in the game chosen because they did not vote for it. Draw a citizenship lesson.
4. Enumerate (*a*) the things that Uncle Sam is in duty bound to do for his citizens; (*b*) the things the citizens should do for him.
5. What is property and why is its safety important to all of us?
6. Name the things your community does to make your life safe.
7. What rights of others must you respect? Name every-day instances in the school where this can be taught.
8. What determines in America whether a community is governed well or badly?
9. What is a "slacker"? Give an illustration where that term might be applied to a pupil.
10. Do you think a boy accused of any misconduct at school has a right to be heard in his own defense?

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CHAPTER XVI

THE MANAGEMENT OF SEAT WORK

The management of seat work in the country schools is an important factor in the day's activities. Some time should be devoted each day to construction work of various kinds. Children enjoy making things, and there are many ways in which paste, paper, cardboard, and other materials may be used. In planning projects for seat work, the teacher should be sure that the work will be truly educative.

Principles to be Considered.—Every project should meet the following requirements: (*a*) it should be made for a definite purpose; (*b*) it should be suited to the child's stage of development; (*c*) it should be interesting to the child; (*d*) it should encourage independence of thought; (*e*) it should be directly related to other school work; (*f*) it should have social value.

In the primary division the work should center mainly around the home and the community. Too much emphasis should not be placed upon accuracy or precision. The chief aim should be the expression of ideas through material.

Directing the Work.—Seat work is largely a management problem for the rural school teacher. Her time for such work is so limited that success will depend principally upon her ability to manage well the period devoted to it. The entire school should work on the same project, or phases of that project, at the same

time. The teacher, therefore, must have her work well planned.

A few good rules for the teacher to follow are: (*a*) discuss the project fully with the children and get them enthusiastic about it; (*b*) have all materials ready; (*c*) make directions clear, simple, and direct; (*d*) give directions for but one step at a time; (*e*) insist upon careful attention; (*f*) distribute and collect material without waste of time; (*g*) use blackboard illustrations freely; (*h*) rather have a small amount of work well done than much attempted and poorly done; (*i*) let the children independently do work similar to the project to test their initiative.

Kinds of Projects.—There are many good educative projects for seat work. The rural teacher, however, must limit herself to comparatively few. She should be careful in her selection, and then carry them through to a successful completion. Interest in holidays and special occasions should be utilized. As Christmas approaches the making of appropriate gifts to parents should be planned. Also simple gifts to hospitals and to less fortunate children. Making and dressing dolls have proven a very interesting and profitable project. It affords many valuable lessons in cost of material, suitable dresses for all occasions, and harmony of color. Plasteline or clay modeling is interesting work for primary grades. It trains the fingers and develops the child's power of observation. After a preliminary lesson in which they are taught to use the tips of their fingers and thumbs rather than the palms of the hands, the pupils may be left to work by themselves while the teacher proceeds with other work.

Because of its adaptability to all grades, the making

of boxes and booklets furnishes problems that may be easily given in rural schools. Directions for these two projects follow.*

Box-Making.—We give our problems in construction when the need for them arises. There are many occasions demanding the use of boxes. In the fall we wish to put away the seeds that we are to plant in our gardens in the spring. We wish to make boxes or baskets to hold the nuts and raisins on our Thanksgiving table. Boxes are needed for enclosing spring blossoms as gifts. One opportunity-room became so skillful in the making of circular boxes that the pupils supplied the local florist with all the boxes for his Valentine Day trade. Boxes and baskets made of oak tag are useful about the garden. One boy made quart boxes of oak tag in which to market his berries. At Christmas time we need some baskets for table favors. Gifts that are small and light may be enclosed in a box and hung on the Christmas tree. Often a tiny gift is very precious, and we want to be very sure that it will reach the one for whom it is intended. It may be packed in soft white cotton, placed in a box, and hung safely on the tree. A gift enclosed in an attractive box may be made to assume an added value.

Ready-made boxes covered with fancy papers in designs of holly, mistletoe, and poinsettia, though appropriate at Christmas time, are usually not artistic.

How a box may be made appropriate and artistic and how to construct a box for necessity's sake are shown below.

The children in the lowest grades may make small

* Prepared by Agnes B. Cole, of the Department of Art and Manual Arts, Iowa State Teachers' College.

boxes and baskets for the Christmas tree and for the table. The simplest constructed box, without measuring, is made of a square of cover paper. Take a 4-inch square. It should not be a heavy paper. Crease in the center each way, and then again so as to obtain sixteen squares. Cut one folded side of each corner

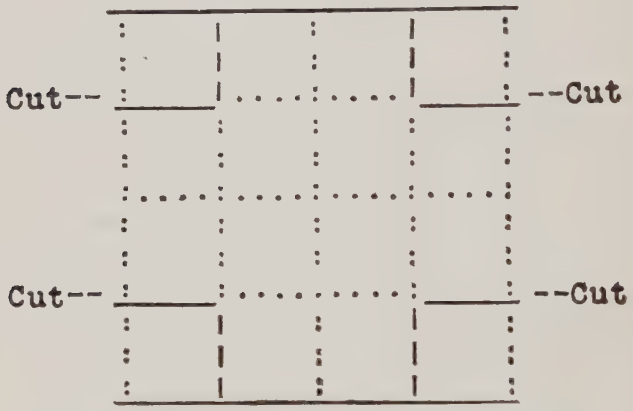

FIG. A

square as in Fig. *A*. Then shape up the box and paste the corner laps to the inner parts of the sides.

The lid is made in the same way that the bottom of the box is made, but from a slightly larger piece of paper. To remove the cover easily from the box, thumb notches may be placed on the opposite sides of the lid. Or the lid may be more shallow than the box.

If the creases are undesirable, or if a rectangular box is needed, then measurements must be made. Be sure to connect this work up with the arithmetic work.

A set of dominoes and a box to contain them can be made by children of second-grade ability.

In the upper grades larger boxes may be made. Many uses will occur to the live teacher. The collection of materials for science, the storage of small supplies, stick-printing boxes, and seat-work boxes furnish connections between the hand-work processes and the uses of box problems.

If the box is to be large, such as the size of a half-pound candy box, heavy paper or thick cardboard should be used. Have old candy boxes brought in, soaked in water, and taken apart to illustrate ways of construction. Connect up box-making with a study of the industry. Study common factory methods of box and carton making and duplication.

For our special upper-grade problem we will describe the making of a stick-printing box.

Materials: The box is made of two pieces of light-weight lined chipboard for foundation, each 5 inches by 7 inches; two pieces of engine paper for covering, each $5\frac{3}{4}$ inches by $7\frac{3}{4}$ inches. The paper for the box should be left plain; the paper for the lid may be decorated appropriately. We will also need eight pieces of tissue or tracing paper, and eight pieces of thin cloth, each $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch square, to support the four corners of the cover and the four corners of the box.

Foundation: Take one piece of cardboard 5 by 7 inches. Draw lines $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch from each edge on the gray side of the chipboard. Let the lines intersect at the corners. This will be for the cover of the box. The cover should be $\frac{3}{16}$ inch larger than the bottom of the box, so that it will fit easily over the box when covered. Lay out the bottom of the box. Score along the lines indicating the sides. Scoring and creasing must be definite. Scoring may be done with the point

of the scissors, but a knife is a better tool. Lay the ruler along the line where the scoring is to be done. Press hard enough to indent or cut the cardboard sufficiently to result in a sharp corner when bent up into position. Cut out the corners with the scissors. Bend up the sides, folding the scored side out. In this work it is important that materials to be used by the class be tested out in folding, and especially in scoring. The problem must be executed by the teacher if she would avoid failure in the class work. Hold the sides in position by pasting the small pieces of tracing paper or newsprint around the corners. Strengthen the corners with the small pieces of thin cloth.

Covering: There are two common methods of covering boxes, one as here described for the stick-printing box, and the other when a strip is pasted around the sides of the box, extending slightly over the top. The top and bottom are finished with a rectangular piece of paper, leaving a margin of from ⅛ to ¼ inch.

For the stick-printing box, fit the covering to the box by wrapping it around the box, and, turning the edges in, crease it lightly with the fingers. Then, using these creases as guides, draw the layout. Lay it out flat on a piece of newspaper, cover all over with paste, and paste to box.

Decoration: An appropriate design would be one made with stick-printing. In making the design with the little sticks, squares, circles, triangles, the background spaces should be kept small and the whole should make a surface pattern.

Sticks: The small sticks used for printing may be whittled out of soft wood, or may be made of ⅝-inch dowel-rod. The dowel-rod may be cut up into 1½-inch

lengths, and the end of the stick whittled to the shape of a square or a triangle.

Pans of Color: Pop bottle tops may serve for the little pans to hold the colors. Cut small pieces of felt to fit the pans. Or old soft white cloth may be doubled many times to form a pad and cut to lie down in the bottom of the pan. These pads are saturated with the colored mixture.

Color: Take opaque water-color and put enough water and mucilage (about half and half) in it to make it a little thicker than cream. The mucilage serves as a binder. Press the stick on the colored pad and then on the paper where we are making our design. By repeating these little spots of color many interesting patterns can be worked out, depending, of course, on the inventive genius of the pupil. The piece of paper should be decorated before it is pasted to the box.

One of the little stick-printing boxes purchased from any of the supply houses would serve as a guide in giving a general idea and possibly in giving some help in making the little sticks.

Booklet-Making.—Of all forms of construction work, booklet-making is perhaps most in demand. It is progressive in its difficulty, and can be adapted to any grade of children. It is universal in its application. We come in contact with it every day. As a problem in handwork it can be made very much alive. Because of the many helps a variety as to kinds of booklets can be worked out by the teacher with her pupils. The older pupils can work quite independently of the teacher by the help of working drawings. The *Industrial and Applied Art Books*,* and *The Industrial Art Text Books*,†

* Mentzer Bush & Co., Chicago. † Laidlow Bros., Chicago.

give explicit working drawings and directions. The first four books of each set offer many suggestions to teachers for the lower grades, and Books Five, Six, Seven, and Eight contain easily read working-drawings for the older pupils. After a few of the simpler basic principles like pasting and sewing have been taught, the older pupils can make the booklets from the drawings. Children below fifth grade ability should not make books involving surface-pasting. The range of materials needed for booklet-making is not great, and they can be easily obtained. Careful planning and measuring by the pupil are essential. Neatness, cleanliness, and accuracy should result from the process. It should also produce a higher respect for books, and can be made to function in the preservation of books.

Sand-Table Projects.—A sand-table is an indispensable piece of apparatus in every rural school. It offers an excellent opportunity for pupils to express their ideas freely. It also develops their creative powers. In chapter VII directions were given for making a sand-table or sand-tray. Projects for the sand-table grow out of so many of the school's regular activities that several tables might easily be kept in use if space and time would permit. The teacher should be careful to always make the sand-table project a means and not the end. The following list of projects should grow out of the language, reading, and the general lessons, and can be used advantageously:

Gardens.
Harvest time.
Maple-sugar camp.
Farm-yard.
Indian village.

Dutch scene.
Eskimos.
Pilgrim home.
Cotton plantation.
School-yard.
Christmas Eve.
Fair ground.
Circus.

Stories from *Reading and Language*, such as "The Little Red Hen and the Fox," "The Three Billy Goats Gruff," "The Old Woman and the Pig," "The Three Little Pigs," "The Three Bears," and "Little Boy Blue."

Health Stories: "Mrs. Fly and Mrs. Mosquito Decide to Leave Cleanville." "The Pig Brothers."

Sand-Table Representations.—Ways and means for making or obtaining the things that are most needed in the sand-table work are as follows:

Trees: Small sponges dyed green and fastened to little sticks; twigs with green raffia tied on in knots; evergreen branches; trees painted and cut out; silhouettes in green and trees cut double.

Grass: Paper cut into fine bits, colored sawdust and grass seed actually sown on the moist sand.

Buildings: Blocks, paper, and cardboard.

Objects: Plasteline, clay, cornstarch, and salt, pictures, and toys.

Water: Looking-glass, blue paper, glass over dark-blue paper and silver.

QUESTIONS

1. Why are some kinds of seat work considered harmful? Give illustrations.

2. Why should we not regard seat work as merely "busy work"?
3. What is meant by "free play" at the sand-table?
4. Why should the teacher insist upon strict attention when she is giving instructions in seat work?
5. How may the products of the seat work be used to interest the parents in the school?

PROBLEMS

1. Select one of the suggested sand-table projects and work it out as you would have your pupils do it.
2. Make a box according to the directions given in this chapter.
3. Enumerate the several industrial lessons that would be learned in the making and dressing of a doll.
4. Make a stick print outfit.
5. Make a booklet.

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CHAPTER XVII

MEASURING THE RESULTS OF TEACHING

Ever since schools have existed, teachers and school officers have sought to measure the abilities and achievements of pupils. Can it be successfully done, or are the results of teaching so complex and intangible as to make it impossible to measure them? There are those who argue that the influences of the teacher's work can be determined only after the pupils have attained maturity and have demonstrated their fitness or unfitness for the duties of life. They believe that the most important element in the training of children for social efficiency is instilling ideals of industry, cleanliness, patriotism, truthfulness, personal honor. They also say that it is impossible to measure the extent to which such ideals have been implanted.

Tangible Results.—It is true that some of the results of teaching will always be of an intangible nature; it is equally true that much of the school work is tangible and can be measured.

The pupil should acquire as a result of his training, besides the ideals already mentioned, a certain number of fixed habits and a certain capital of knowledge. Since the habits which he acquires can be quite definitely labeled and enumerated, the teacher should have little difficulty in determining, with reasonable accuracy, the progress of a pupil in that respect. It shall be our purpose in this chapter, therefore, to deal with the measur-

ing of that other element in the training of the child, viz., the acquisition of his capital of knowledge.

Need for Measuring in Rural Schools.—To no one in the teaching profession is the thorough understanding of the measuring of pupils' abilities and achievements so essential as to the teacher of the one-room rural school. The importance of studying thoroughly the latest and most successful ways of testing and measuring cannot be too strongly urged upon the rural teacher.

Let us notice some of the problems peculiar to the one-teacher rural school which make it essential that the teacher should understand measuring.

1st. *Small Classes.*—Many of the pupils in our rural schools are alone in their classes, or, at best, have but one classmate. It is difficult for the teacher, in such cases, to know whether the pupils are making the progress that they can and should make. She cannot rely upon the average attainment of such a class, as can the teacher, for instance, with one grade of thirty pupils. What she needs, then, is some definite and reliable standard whereby she can measure the progress that her pupils are making. Especially is this true when that pupil who is alone in his class is also irregular in his attendance at school, as is so frequently the case.

2d. *Combining and Alternating Classes.*—One of the difficult problems of the rural teacher is reducing the large number of classes that she has per day. In the chapter on the "Daily Program," ways and means are suggested for the solution of that problem. Two of the ways recommended are by combining and by alternating classes. Certain dangers are involved in these methods. When combining, for instance, the fifth and the sixth year pupils in reading for recitation purposes, calling it

the "B" division, the teacher must guard against the danger of retarding the more advanced pupils and, on the other hand, of advancing other pupils too rapidly for thorough work.

The alternation of classes may be carried out in several different ways. Whatever the method, the teacher must bear in mind that the total amount of time devoted to a given subject by a pupil during the year is reduced and that as a result of such reduction of time there is danger that the pupil will be retarded. In both cases, then, it is again essential that the teacher should have at her command a yardstick that is reliable.

3d. *Pupils Moving from One School to Another.*— The increase of tenantry among farmers has resulted in a constant increase in the changes of residence among farmers during the school year. The teacher of the rural school is, as a result of those changes, frequently confronted with the problem of classifying new pupils. Contrast her situation with that of the teacher in a graded school system. When a pupil presents himself for admission to a graded school, he is sent to the superintendent or principal of that school, and that official decides upon his classification. The teacher in the rural school, on the other hand, is so far removed from her supervising official, usually the county superintendent, that she must, except in the most extreme cases, assume the responsibility herself. In other words, she must act in the capacity of principal as well as of teacher. And, unfortunately in the matter of classification, her task is much more difficult than is that of the principal of a graded school. Her pupils come from schools in which it is impossible to have the same degree of uniformity in classification and promotion of pupils as in

graded schools. For the purpose of classification, then, as well as measuring progress, the rural teacher needs a measuring stick that is accurate and reliable.

Examinations.—Written examinations have been the conventional school tests. Do they meet the needs of the rural teacher?

It must be admitted that examinations may be of value if rightly used; it may be very emphatically said that there are serious objections to their use and that better ways of testing are now available.

1st. *The Examination Questions.*—Questions prepared by teachers for examinations vary so in difficulty that it is practically impossible to compare children on that basis from year to year or from different school systems.

2d. *Too Great Variation in Teachers' Marks.*—Many factors enter into the causes for wide variation in teachers' markings. The same teacher will give a widely different value to the same paper under different circumstances. Papers graded at the close of a trying day at school will not receive the same marks as when graded after a night's rest. Again, two different teachers will differ greatly in their estimation of the value of a given answer to a question.

3d. *Evil Effects Upon the Pupil.*—Objections to examinations are frequently made because of the effect they have upon pupils. Some objections are: (*a*) They lead pupils to "cramming" for the examination rather than to acquiring abilities that will be useful in later life. (*b*) They tempt children to be dishonest. Such terms as "bluffing," "cribbing," and "spotting the teacher" are so well known among the students of to-day as to make further evidence on this point unnecessary. (*c*) The examination, if it stimulates any-

one, stimulates the pupil that needs it least, that is, the oversensitive and ambitious one. (*d*) The physical strain arising from examinations causes nervous breakdowns and gives many children a horror of school.

Standard Tests.—One of the most recent educational developments is the use of "Standard Tests." Two things make these tests useful. First, they have been carefully constructed by scientific experts. Second, standards for these tests have been scientifically prepared, and the results of tests may be readily compared with those standards.

It will be impossible to discuss adequately, in a single chapter, this important subject in modern education. We must restrict ourselves to a discussion of the usefulness of such tests in the management of a one-teacher school.

We shall consider their use from three standpoints, viz.: (*a*) as a guide in classification; (*b*) to measure from time to time the progress made by pupils, and (*c*) to diagnose pupils' difficulties along certain lines.

For Classification.—A teacher, when she enters upon her duties in a rural school, should know that her pupils are properly classified. Her first use for a standard test, therefore, will be for that purpose.

The construction of a single group of tests for the purpose of measuring the past achievement of all the school in its entire program of subjects, is the newest development in the field of testing. We have had for several years many tests, but each covered only a small part of the ground that the average teacher or superintendent desired to cover. The *Standard Achievement Test** aims to remedy this situation for grades 2–8. It

* Published by World Book Co., Yonkers, N. Y.

covers all of the ground that it is necessary to cover for ordinary purposes of school or pupil measurement. The test is easily administered. A manual containing full directions, both as to the giving of the test and the utilization of the results, can be obtained from the publishers. The teacher who is in doubt, therefore, as to whether her school is properly classified, should avail herself of such help. The proper procedure would be to consult the county superintendent about the matter and through him procure the necessary material. This having been done, the teacher should then give the test, score the papers, chart her results, and submit the same, together with her suggestions as to remedies, to the county superintendent for his approval. After she has her school well classified, she should have little difficulty in applying the same test to new pupils who enter from other schools. Also when a pupil from her school moves to another school, she will be able to give to the pupil's new teacher a statement of his "educational quotient," or accomplishment, that is based upon the most scientific and reliable information available.

Measuring Progress.—After the school has been properly classified, the industrious teacher will want to know whether her pupils are making the progress that should be made. There are many good tests available for that purpose. In arithmetic, for instance, the teacher should know what progress her pupils are making in their work in the fundamental operations. The Courtis tests in arithmetic,* which consist of a series of problems in the fundamentals that are of equal difficulty, may be given periodically and the results charted.

* *Courtis Standard Research Tests in Arithmetic,* published by S. A. Courtis, Detroit, Mich.

On the subject of reading, Monroe* says concerning the use of the Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Tests in the rural schools: "In a rural school it will be most convenient to test all of the pupils above the second grade at one time. In recording the scores, it will, of course, be necessary to record the scores for the different grades separately. These silent reading tests are not teaching devices. They are instruments for measuring the ability of pupils to read silently. They should be given at the beginning of the school year so that the teacher may know her pupils better. If they are not used at the beginning of the year, they may be given at any time, preferably as early as convenient. The tests should be repeated at the end of the year, so that the teacher may know how much his pupils have increased their ability to read silently. When the tests are given a second time a different form should be used. If it is desired, the tests may be given a third time at the middle of the year, but they should not be given more than three times a year."

In handwriting, charts have been prepared which give samples of writing from the very poorest to that which is perfect. Wilson and Hoke† say: "If a teacher has not been accustomed to make use of scales and standardized tests in her work of grading, she would do well to begin with the subject of writing. Writing is one of the mechanical subjects, and one of the most easily and quickly measured. In order to avoid confusion on her part, she should study and practise scientific measurement in this subject alone until she has become reasonably proficient."

* Walter S. Monroe, *Measuring the Results of Teaching.*
† Wilson and Hoke, *How to Measure.*

For Diagnostic Purposes.—The writer recently administered the Standard Achievement Test to a typical one-teacher rural school. When the papers were scored it was found that one pupil was strong, with but one exception, in all of his work. That one exception was in the arithmetic "computation" test. This test measures the ability of a pupil as to speed and accuracy in the fundamental operations. What is the problem of the teacher of that pupil? It is much the same as the problem of the physician when he is called to the bedside of a patient, that is, to determine the cause of the ailment and then to apply the proper remedy.

Monroe says: "A few years ago Stone investigated the nature of ability in arithmetic, and concluded that it was made up of a number of specific abilities. His conclusions have been corroborated by a number of other investigations, and it is now reasonably certain that in teaching the operations of arithmetic, we are attempting to engender a number of specific abilities which are relatively distinct, and not a single arithmetical ability. The word 'ability' is used to refer to rate and accuracy with which a pupil does a certain type of example. Teachers have recognized that pupils could do subtraction examples in which there was no 'borrowing' when they were unable to do examples in which there was 'borrowing,' or that they could do short division when they were unable to do long division. The investigations of Stone and others have proven that there are as many different abilities as there are types of examples."

Tests should be used, then, to diagnose the cause of a pupil's weakness in a subject. In arithmetic it may be due to the fact that the pupil has never mastered cer-

tain portions of the multiplication table or of the forty-five combinations.

Poor comprehension in reading may be due to a lack of vocabulary. Whatever the cause, when the right diagnosis has been made, the teacher can intelligently set herself to the task of administering the proper remedy.

Tests Used to Stimulate Interest.—The Standard Tests can be used by the teacher as an effective means for stimulating the pupil's interest in his school work. This is especially true in the rural school where the pupil has no competition. Such a pupil can be shown where he stands in comparison with other children of his own age. It becomes his problem, then, to meet that standard, and every bit of progress made by him will be encouragement for a still greater effort. What an incentive to a pupil to have his teacher say to him: "Johnny, three months ago you added correctly six problems of the test in the time I gave you, and to-day you have added eight. The standard for your age, however, is ten problems. Let us work hard now in the next three months so that you will be able to meet that standard."

The individual score sheet in arithmetic, illustrated below, makes it possible for a child to see at a glance how he compares with the standard set by other children of his own age. It also enables him to see his own rate of progress.

The plan is to have posted upon the wall a score sheet for each individual pupil. With *black* ink mark in each column the number that corresponds to the standard fixed for that test. Then with a ruler draw a line from each number so marked to the next.

After the first test, given in September or October, mark in each column in *red* ink the number that corresponds to the pupil's score. Then with a ruler draw with red ink a line from each number so marked to the next. By comparing the two curves the pupil can tell how much his scores are above or below the standard. In February and May the tests should be given again and the results marked on the score sheet, but each time with a different colored ink. Thus the progress or lack of progress will stand out prominently for each pupil.

Pupil's Name.....

GRAPH

ADDITION		SUBTRACTION		MULTIPLICATION		DIVISION	
ATTEMPTS	RIGHTS	ATTEMPTS	RIGHTS	ATTEMPTS	RIGHTS	ATTEMPTS	RIGHTS
24	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23
22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22
21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
17	17	17	17	17	17	17	17
16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
14	14	14	14	14	14	14	14
13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12
11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8
7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

QUESTIONS

1. How does a standard test differ from an ordinary test?
2. What is meant by "I. Q."? "E. Q."?
3. What is the average number of years required by all children to complete the eight elementary grades in your school?
4. What does a teacher gain by presenting graphically the achievements of a class?
5. What evidence have you that examinations have had a good or bad moral influence?

PROBLEMS

1. Learn how to administer a "Standard Test."
2. Explain what use you would make of the results of a reading test in your school.
3. Discuss the relative merits of the average and the median as single measures of the achievement of a class.
4. Determine the subject which has been responsible for the largest number of failures in your school over a period of years.
5. State the use that may be made of standard tests in convincing parents of the backwardness of their children.

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3. Phillips: *Fundamentals in Elementary Education*, Chapter XXI.
4. Turner: *The Essentials of Good Teaching*, Chapter XIV.
5. Monroe: *Measuring the Results of Teaching.*
6. Wilson and Hoke: *How to Measure.*

CHAPTER XVIII

DISCIPLINE

Order is heaven's first law. In a well-disciplined school, "discipline" is conspicuous by its absence. In an army, discipline is the most essential element to success. When the men are not under discipline, then those in authority can accomplish nothing. Such a condition leads to low morale. Likewise, in the schoolroom a lack of discipline and order means chaos. A leader of any group or organization, if he would succeed, must first see to it that order and discipline reign. It is well, then, to admonish every teacher to be able to recognize disorder and poor discipline, and to fix in her mind the one slogan, "Order and Discipline First." This will mean that the teacher who finds disorder creeping into the class will stop all procedure and secure order, even if it takes the rest of the period. The disorder must cease or the cause must be removed. If teachers will live up to such an ideal, and if boys and girls know that they are being taught by teachers who are determined to have order, our schools will turn out far better citizens. Waste in education will be materially lessened. Children are perfectly human. As soon as they discover that they must behave and work, they will do so. But the child who will work and attend to his best interests without being guided by a determined teacher is the exception. The best cannot be done if discipline is wanting.

Discipline.—Discipline in its broadest sense means training and instruction; improvement by corrective

methods; submission of the learner or disciple to drill and constant guidance. School discipline does not concern itself at all times with "bad boys and girls" only, but with an everlasting vigil over the sum total of a child's activities. It is well for the teacher to recognize at the outset that there may be conditions within the schoolroom or within her own personality which may prevent good discipline.

Physical Conditions of Schoolroom.—In Chapter VI much stress has been placed upon the physical conditions of the schoolroom. Lighting, seating, ventilation, heating, and humidity were discussed and the ideal in each case was urged. The reason for demanding these ideals was not that more money might be spent, but that the boys and girls might be comfortable. Comfort begets discipline and order. A child who is cold cannot study. He is bound to become restless. The child breathing foul air will become sleepy and listless and will attempt to wake himself by some invented activity. If teachers and school authorities could see the direct relation between comfort and discipline, there would be less difficulty in securing needed repairs and necessary equipment in our schools.

Physical Condition of Pupils.—Another common cause for disorder in the schoolroom is the physical condition of the pupils. A child who has poor eyesight and cannot read the work on the blackboard, or who cannot read charts and maps, is likely to lose interest in his work and become inattentive. Inattention leads to disorder. The same can be said of poor hearing. In an indirect but forceful way all physical defects, such as bad teeth, malnutrition, adenoids, enlarged tonsils, and the great number of defects so common among too many

of the children of our schools have a very marked influence on the attention, interest, and order of the schools.

The Teacher.—The teacher is discussed in the chapter that follows. Her personal, professional, and physical traits are enumerated. These traits sum up the total of a teacher's personality and her attitude toward the teaching profession.

It is impossible to say, without too lengthy a discussion, which of those qualities are the greatest influence in discipline. It is reasonable to infer without discussion, however, that "poise," "tact," "good health," "even temper," "thorough preparation," "a good voice," "sympathy," "sincerity," and "fairness" are especially necessary to good discipline. Of course it goes without saying that the teacher is responsible for discipline. But to say that the teacher may be the only factor in the way of good discipline would no doubt shock some teachers. This fact must be driven home. Too many teachers who have poor discipline blame every other factor, but overlook themselves.

Attitude of Parents.—As suggested in other chapters, parents and teachers need to co-operate. Teachers cannot be entirely successful in disciplining a child whose parents do not appreciate that behavior is necessary in organized society. Parents who are inclined to look upon the actions of their child as a mark of "cuteness," or who excuse him on the ground of his parental ancestors, are not in sympathy with sound discipline. Sometimes parents are very indulgent with their children, and do not see the errors they commit. A teacher can well afford to spend time with such parents in attempting to set them right. When parents do co-operate with the teacher, there is little trouble in discipline. If they

criticize when she makes a definite stand for order, she is very much handicapped. Would that teachers and parents could stand as a unit in this matter.

Lack of Playground Supervision.—A playground unsupervised may be a hotbed of disorder. In the chapter on Physical Education much stress is placed upon playground supervision. Children will do many things in groups and cliques on the unsupervised playground that they would not think of doing any place else. Many of the petty quarrels and misunderstandings are carried into the schoolroom. The teacher under these conditions is unaware of the difficulty. She has handicapped herself by being absent from the playground. Children that are busy playing wholesome games every minute will not have time for anything else. The wise teacher will thus engage her boys and girls at every intermission. She will plan for intermissions as well as for class work.

Distracting Influences.—Anything that tends to detract from the work in the schoolroom would be classed as a distracting influence. Playgrounds situated too near the open window or open unshaded windows too close to a busy street or public highway are very bad and tend to take attention away from school work. Unnecessary noises, such as the giving of loud signals for passing of classes, tapping of bells, and the noisy, boisterous rattle of a nervous teacher, all tend to make attention difficult. On the other hand, a quiet, orderly bearing on the part of the teacher and the pupils is conducive to easy attention.

How to Secure and Maintain Discipline

Make School Work Interesting.—All the devices and methods that teachers can collect and use wisely make

school work more interesting. Interest keeps out the disturbing intruders. The child who likes his work and applies himself diligently has no time to get out of order.

An experienced teacher knows that disorder means a lack of interest. The best advice for a beginning teacher would be: Increase interest by proper choice of subject-matter and good incentives. A lack of interest suggests that the teacher should look at herself. She is perhaps teaching from a "stagnant pool."

Make Definite Stands.—A teacher must have definite convictions in matters of discipline. After having taken careful thought concerning certain conduct, nothing adds to a teacher's power more than making careful decisions and then standing by them. Evenness of control not only wins confidence but it establishes correct habits. Teachers cannot afford to be "easy" one day and "cranky" the next.

Procrastination is a special type of weakness among inexperienced teachers. Putting off until some other day or waiting until a more opportune time is a very bad habit. Sometimes children do little odd things that are not really bad, and the inexperienced teacher is inclined to wait, hoping that it will not happen again. The teacher must have the ability to sense such disturbances, and know almost intuitively whether or not an act on the part of the pupil is against good discipline. Of course a teacher can act too hastily. Sometimes she must bide her time.

Be Square.—Nothing adds to the power of a disciplinarian so much as the ability to weigh difficulties and to arrive at unbiased decisions. The teacher should be sure that she has all the evidence on both sides of the question and then base her decision upon what she de-

termines to be right. It is usually well to let the child know just why such a decision has been reached.

Mechanize Routine.—Many details of management could be made much easier about a school if the pupils knew what they were to do and were then required to do it. Marching into the building, passing materials, dismissals, securing and putting on winter wraps, and the passing of classes can all be done orderly when pupils understand what they are to do. The teacher must know the best method and then require the pupils to follow that method each time. Thus much confusion and unnecessary noise will be eliminated.

The wise teacher will make use of routine whenever she can and thus save time and energy.

Have Few Rules.—"Few rules rigidly enforced" is one of the first principles of school management. In general, rules should not be made until a need arises. If the teacher announces certain rules because she anticipates the need for them, she may omit the one that will be most needed. The mischievous pupil will be sure to notice the omission and will proceed to take advantage of it. As suggested elsewhere in this text, one rule for children will settle most cases. That rule is "Do Right." Normal children know right from wrong. An appeal to that knowledge when rightly made will make it possible for the teacher to put her pupils upon their own honor.

Have an Impersonal Attitude.—Personal feelings must not enter into a punishment case. The child must not be made to feel that his act was against the teacher. If he does, she will find herself in the attitude of fighting for her rights and desperately making rules to overcome her enemies. The teacher must show the child that his actions are not against the teacher, but against law and

order. If he is punished he must understand that he has violated some outstanding law.

Common Sense.—This topic is discussed in the next chapter, and needs notice here simply as a factor in securing good order. A teacher who does not apply common sense in the management of her school will not succeed.

Use Proper Incentives.—The desires that impel a child to effort are called motives or incentives. Incentives are of two kinds, natural and artificial. Since knowledge is a natural result of study, it is a natural incentive. A mother promises her daughter a beautiful sewing set for faithful study during the next month. This is artificial because the sewing set is not a natural consequence of study. Artificial incentives are substitutes for natural. As such they become the immediate ends and divert attention from true ends.

In the pioneer school artificial incentives were common. Many teachers resorted to prizes, head marks, privileges, and exemptions from class work as excellent means of securing interest. The characteristic feature of such artificial incentives is a race between one or two good pupils in the class and a continuous discouragement for the poorer pupils. Too often envy and hard feelings are the final result. Artificial incentives are, however, not always dangerous. There are times when they can be used to advantage if the teacher uses them with care. Natural incentives impel men throughout their lives. Every end foreseen, whether to gain good or to shun evil, awakens an impulse to effort. The teacher should hold before her pupils as many of the natural incentives as possible. She should attempt to stimulate and encourage a child in striving for goals that

will help him to become a better citizen. The natural incentives in school life are numerous, but they range from the selfish to the highest and purest joys of life. According to E. E. White, in his *School Management*, royal incentives are arranged in an ascending order of their worth as follows:

1. Desire for good standing.
2. Desire for approbation.
3. Desire for knowledge.
4. Desire for efficiency.
5. Desire for self-control.
6. Desire for future good.
7. Sense of honor.
8. Sense of right.
9. Sense of duty.

Punishments

Purposes.—One of the most obvious facts in life is that pain and loss follow the violation of law.

But pain and loss in themselves are not the only aims of punishment. Punishment should follow wrong-doing for three purposes: (1) To punish the wrongdoer. (2) To prevent future violation on the part of the one being punished and others who may be influenced thereby. (3) To put the stamp of condemnation on wrong-doing.

Characteristics of Good Punishment.—Punishment should be certain. Certainty of punishment is more important than its severity. Mild punishments administered uniformly will have much better effect than severe fitful punishments. One needs only to refer to various well-known governments of the world and notice the results of their law enforcement. Those nations that have strong laws and see that they are enforced are

the most successful. The teacher will do well to remember this.

Punishment Must Be Just.—Punishment should bear a just relation to the offense. The child who has been an offender must feel that his punishment is just and not too severe. On the other hand, a punishment that is too light causes the child to hold in contempt the whole scheme of control. Such punishment does more harm than good. Teachers sometimes use the same type of punishment for different offenses. This becomes serious because children can see no justice in it. They can usually reason as well about such things as an adult.

Should Be Natural.—Punishments would have a greater effect if every offense could be punished with a natural loss of privilege or pleasure. In this Nature is the perfect example. The boy who sticks his tongue on an iron pump-handle on a cold morning immediately learns his lesson. The teacher, in each case possible, should inflict the natural punishment because the effect is the more excellent. The child is somehow convinced without any question of the justice of the penalty and accepts the situation without a word. If a pupil has abused a privilege, he will easily see that to lose it is just and right. A boy that persists in tormenting the little children during intermissions should not object to taking his recess alone at some other time. The boy who has a new knife and persists in cutting his desk should forfeit his knife until time to go home. The teacher should study to apply natural punishments, because of the excellent results usually obtained.

Every teacher must be her own judge in the light of the above discussion as to what type of punishment will bring the best results. The following types of punish-

ment are discussed in order that the beginning teacher may profit from the experience of others.

Heart-to-Heart Talks.—The average pupil who has been found doing something wrong can be corrected with a quiet "heart-to-heart" talk. Eighty-five to ninety per cent of all difficulties in school discipline can be corrected and pupils made to see the error of their ways if teachers will quietly talk things over with them. The teacher will accomplish more by doing that than by the use of any other means. The teacher is reasonable and not angry; she shows the pupil the results of his behavior not only upon himself but upon the school, and usually by an honest, straightforward discussion the pupil sees and admits his mistake. This, then, is the first step to take when disciplinary difficulties arise.

Semi-public Reproof.—The teacher has talked to a child. The child still persists in his misbehavior. What shall she do then? It is difficult to give the remedy without knowing all the factors that enter into the particular case. When the offense occurs in the presence of other students in the schoolroom, a semi-public reproval should be given. The teacher should go to the pupil and in a quiet but firm manner reprove him for his act. If the offense was quite serious, a more public reproval may be given. In all events, any method of public reproval must be dealt with very carefully. Such methods sometimes border upon nagging and sarcasm, and no action on the part of a teacher is more inexcusable and contemptible than such a habit. There is no place for sarcasm in any well-organized school.

More Severe Punishment.—A pupil who has been spoken to in a kind way privately and who has been reproved in a semi-public or a public way, and who still

persists in offending, must be dealt with more severely in accordance with the offense. There are many kinds of punishment that might be administered, but the age and disposition of the child must be considered before deciding. If the pupil is in the high school, perhaps suspension is the best punishment. For a child in the grades some sane form of corporal punishment may be most effective. Corporal punishment will be discussed later.

In the preceding paragraph the discussion has followed a child through three stages of misconduct and deals with him in an ascending scale of severity.

The following types of punishment have been used with different degrees of success. They must be used with care and consideration.

Satiation as a Penalty.—Punishment through satiation, though effective, is not often used. The results are too often injurious before the offender has been made to repent. However, cases could be given where the results were very satisfactory. For instance, a teacher has been annoyed by the pupils going to the waste-basket with small bits of paper. One pupil made several trips during the course of one period. The teacher requested that this practice be stopped, and told the pupils to keep all waste paper at their seats, and it could be dropped in the waste-paper basket as they passed out for recess or dismissal. Every one obeyed, except one boy, who wanted to see if the teacher meant what she said. He went to the basket three or four times, keeping one eye on the teacher as she was conducting a class near by. The teacher said nothing, but, after the period was over, went to the waste basket and took out two or three good-sized pieces of waste paper and tore them into many

small pieces. She scattered them all over the floor, not far from the boy's desk. He was then required to pick up each piece separately and carry it to the basket. The boy never disregarded this request again, and others received a lesson as well. If the teacher can "beat" the mischievous youngster at his own game he will respect her for it.

Withdrawal of Privileges.—This method of punishment has been referred to before, but it must be mentioned here as one of the effective means of punishment. A child who persists in talking while at the library should not be allowed the privilege of the library until he can conduct himself properly. To be a member of a class or to be in school is a privilege, and the pupil who disturbs the group should be removed for the benefit of those who care to give attention. Of course, some children would be glad to lose such privileges. The teacher must know how best to handle the case in hand.

Conferring with Parents.—Much has been said in this book about the co-operation of teachers and parents. Again it must be said that many difficulties in discipline could be avoided if teachers and parents would talk over these problems. The teacher's influence will be much stronger if the pupil knows that his parents and the teacher are working together. On the contrary, the teacher is greatly hindered if the pupil knows there is no common bond of agreement between her and his parents. Sometimes the home influence is entirely against the teacher in all matters of discipline. This often brings about difficult situations. The teacher should not hesitate to take up a bad case of discipline with the parents or guardian.

Suspension and Corporal Punishment.—These two types of punishment have been placed last because every possible means known to a teacher should be used before these. Especially is this true of the latter. Small boys and girls under twelve years of age certainly should not be suspended from school. Too often this would meet with their approval. Boys and girls over fourteen years of age—who know the value of school—may perhaps be suspended as the final effort to put down disorder in the school.

Corporal punishment should never be used until every other means has been tried, and then only for insubordinate and rebellious pupils. If corporal punishment must be used, the following cautions and suggestions should be followed. In some cases every one should be observed; others might not need such careful consideration:

(1) Never administer when angry.

(2) Corporal punishment, when inflicted, should be with a rubber tube applied below the loins rather than upon the body or the hands.

(3) Do not use a ruler on the palm or back of the hands.

(4) Do not hit children over the head with a book, slap them, or pull their ears.

(5) It is better not to punish before other pupils.

(6) Ask an adult to be present if possible.

(7) Consult parents and let them know your intentions and why.

(8) Keep a record of offenses and your method of treatment.

QUESTIONS

1. What would you do with a stubborn child? A haughty child? A self-satisfied child? An irresponsible child?

2. Give arguments for and against the giving of half or fourth holidays every month to pupils or classes who have done well in deportment.
3. Under what conditions would you deprive a pupil of his recess period for misconduct?
4. How would you determine whether a child should receive light punishment, severe, or no punishment at all?
5. What is the relation of school discipline to disrespect for law?
6. What would be your attitude on the elimination of corporal punishment from the home and the school?
7. Should school tasks be used as penalties for misconduct? Why?
8. When should punishments be administered?
9. Name five punishments other than those mentioned in the text which you have seen used in school. Do you consider that they were objectionable or desirable? Why?
10. Is lowering a pupil's grade as a penalty for misconduct objectionable or desirable? Give reasons for your answer.

PROBLEMS

1. A boy persists in using tobacco in the outbuilding during the school session. You have forbidden its use on the school premises. How would you manage this problem?
2. John is ten years old and is a member of the third grade. He constantly bothers the younger pupils by teasing, throwing rocks and sticks at them. He uses profane language and sometimes calls the children very ugly names. The teacher has whipped him. She has talked to him, but without effect. What would you do about it?
3. A teacher in a country school walked back to where two of the older boys were sitting and found that they had been sharpening pencils and throwing the shavings on the floor. They also had torn up papers into small pieces and thrown them around. She asked them to get the broom and dust-pan and clean up. One of the boys rebelled and remarked that he was not the janitor. What would you do in such a case?

4. Suppose that two of your large girls want to do something to attract attention of the other pupils. They come to school dressed in old "togs" of various kinds that they have found around home. Would you send them home? Would you make them change to proper clothing before they could come to school? What would you do?
5. Suppose the teacher arrives at her school some morning before the pupils come and finds a picture on the board. This picture represents an old maid. It is labelled "Our Dear Teacher." What would you do about it?
6. What does it mean to say that discipline is conduct with reference to an end?
7. What relation should exist between discipline and the formation of character?
8. It is more important to find the source of disorder and bad conduct than to eliminate the evil effects of a child's misbehavior. Explain.
9. What is the teacher's most important task: to teach the so-called common branches well, or to get boys and girls to hate with a burning hate things that are not worth while and to love things that are worth while? What has this to do with discipline?

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CHAPTER XIX

POINTS OF EMPHASIS IN CLASSROOM PROCEDURE

From the various methods of classroom instruction, the effective teacher chooses those which most nearly meet the needs of the pupils as well as the nature of the subject in hand. There are various means of leading the child to master the same lesson. The proper choice of these constitutes the professional phase of teaching, just as the ability to diagnose well determines the professional skill of the medical world.

This chapter has to do with the following types of procedure, which are among those more commonly used in the classroom.

(1) Telling exercise or lecture method.
(2) Object lesson.
(3) The inductive lesson.
(4) The appreciation lesson.
(5) Habit formation.
(6) Teaching pupils how to study.
(7) The project.
(8) The assignment.
(9) The recitation.

Telling Exercise.—Years ago, when the school aimed to educate the few, and when the securing of knowledge was the chief purpose, the lecture method held an important place in the classroom. To-day this method is looked upon as the road of least resistance, since it is much easier for the teacher to tell the whole story than

to formulate questions and to develop a point that the child may be led to think.

To be sure, the lecture method is sometimes of value, especially if the teacher desires to bring in some of her experience to illustrate points in the lesson, but this must not be used to the exclusion of other and better methods.

Many college classes are taught entirely by the purely lecture method, simply because instructors assume that college students can grasp ideas that are more or less abstract. This idea is perhaps correct if a college is an institution of technical instruction, basing such instruction upon experimentation or survey, whose clients are real students, but if this college is to take the *beginner* and connect him "up" with new facts that are hazy in the mind of the young student, then the instructor must play the rôle of a teacher and develop the learner's power through question and answer. If the latter be true for college students, how much more true must it be for pupils in the elementary school.

Object Lesson.—The object lesson is a type of procedure which aims to increase experience and knowledge through objects and materials. The use of such a procedure increases the interest and assists in connecting the outside world of facts with the teaching process.

Nature study affords an excellent opportunity to carry out the use of objects and materials in the study of birds, flowers, and trees. Geography has many splendid illustrations to offer a class when field trips are planned and carefully worked out. Streams, hills, stone quarries, sand-pits, the effects of rain and frost upon the earth's surface are all interesting to a child.

Many lessons in arithmetic can be made much clearer

by using concrete examples, such as working home problems on measurement of bins, wagon-boxes, fields, and corn-cribs. Arithmetic lessons in banking are made more interesting by taking the class to the bank. The cashier will be glad to give them a good practical discussion and show the boys and girls just how the banking business is done.

The primary store as discussed below adds to the interest of a beginning class, and is another means of using objects to inspire children and at the same time teach numbers, reading, spelling, language, and writing. The following is a copy of the plan used in an Iowa rural school:

Primary Store

Motivating numbers, reading, spelling, language, and writing

The members of the first grade made a collection of empty boxes, such as raisin, coffee, tea, rolled oats, cocoa, gelatine, matches, pepper, puffed wheat, and many others that were available about their mothers' kitchens. Eggs were blown by the pupils and the empty shells used for eggs in the store. Prices of all products were learned through the home or a merchant, and the cost of each article printed on a small white card with the rubber stamp printing press. This card was placed on the object in such a way that as the prices changed the card might be changed. Part of the book-case, a wooden box, or a table may serve as the store. Pasteboard money can be purchased from any educational supply house or may be made by the children. After a few drills on money and making change, the class is ready to "keep store."

One member is chosen to be the merchant for a period at a time. Another member is chosen to distribute the money. He may be asked to count out a certain amount, as $2.50, $1.75, etc., for each member of the class.

The names of the articles or boxes to be purchased are written on the board, at first by the teacher, for instance:

1 box of rolled oats.....$0.25
2 boxes of raisins..... .80

The pupils are expected to read and find the sum mentally and immediately begin to count out money for the purchase. Each one is eager to do the buying, therefore he must take care to count out the proper change.

As the class progresses, the clerk or storekeeper may make change for his customer and issue a bill of goods purchased. Fractions are worked out in simple forms, as: one-half dozen of eggs at fifty cents a dozen.

This plan has obtained pleasing results in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, as well as in simple fractions. The class keeps alive and receives much practical value from the work. Latest market prices are learned and some practical experience in purchasing is gained.

Trips to the factory or to the court-house, to the mill or to the machine-shop for the purpose of securing facts, all have a place in the modern scheme of teaching.

The teacher must remember the following points in connection with the object lesson procedure:

(1) Definite aims must be kept in mind for every field trip and object used.

(2) Careful directions must be given the pupils.

(3) Teacher must not expect to analyze or go too much into details.

The Inductive Lesson.—Man learns by experience. He sees, feels, hears, and grasps ideas about the world through his senses, and, after many experiences, is able to recognize new concepts through comparison. The ability to ask questions by which to connect past experiences with the future undiscovered field is the mark of a good teacher. Her pleasant duty is to take the hand of the inexperienced child and lead him by pointing out through questions, suggestions, and simple experiments the close relationship of the old known facts with the new and untried. Teaching becomes a pleasure when the pupil's face, awry with doubt and despair, in the midst of questioning and searching, suddenly gleams with understanding and his eyes dance for joy because a discovery has been made. Every teacher ought to have a plan or aim. A plan, old but tried by many experienced teachers, has been found so satisfactory that it is offered here for the assistance of prospective teachers. This plan is divided into the following parts:

(1) The aim.

(2) Introduction (or the preparation of the pupil's mind for the new material in the advanced lesson).

(3) Discussion (or the presentation of new points and a gradual cementing of old ideas with the new).

(4) Elaboration (or the completion of the connection between the old and the new, by comparisons, abstractions, and generalizations).

(5) Conclusion and application.

The Aim.—When the assignment is made the aim should be included. The aim suggests to the pupil that something definite is to be reached, a problem is to be

solved. The statement of the aim should be simple, definite, short, attractive, and concrete. It should suggest new and undiscovered fields of interest. Of course it is plain that a teacher cannot state an aim for an advanced lesson without herself having studied the lesson and carefully worked out the points that need to be emphasized. When the aim has been stated and the lesson completed, the pupils should be able to recognize that that aim has been accomplished.

Preparation.—At the outset it must be said with emphasis that the term *Preparation* as used here does not mean the teacher's preparation, but rather the preparation of the pupil's mind for the new material. It will be the teacher's duty to hold up for inspection all old, fixed ideas that are now in the mind of the child. Review old rules, principles, and data so that the pupil may gradually begin to see the relation of the old to the new. During the class preparation the teacher needs to call into action her very best questioning ability, for more skill (or lack of it) may be displayed here than at any other point in the teaching process.

Presentation.—Presentation is the teaching of new facts or ideas to the class. It now becomes the duty of the teacher to select sufficient examples, illustrations, processes, experiments, or concrete cases, each having in common with the others the point to be discussed and comprehended, that the pupil can hardly fail to grasp the relationship.

The presentation of a lesson should be clothed in simple language. The pupil needs to use all of his energy in the mastery of the idea at hand, and not spend time trying to understand difficult sentences that may be used in asking questions or discussing new points.

Hence, the teacher should previously give serious thought to the questions to be asked and to the direction that the discussion should take.

At the close of the step of "presentation" the pupils should have gained a body of new knowledge that will assist in formulating the final conclusion.

Elaboration.—Comparison between the old and the new ideas and a careful weighing of all data is now the duty of teacher and pupil. This step displays teaching power or the lack of it. Now is the time to classify, arrange, and locate common traits and come to decisions which will place new ideas into their proper relationships and cause such ideas to become a part of the body of knowledge of the learner. Contrasts of unlike features and clear conclusions as to where the points differ from each other are a necessary part of the elaboration.

If possible pupils should be encouraged to formulate their own rules and principles at this time, from what they have discovered throughout the preparation and presentation. Such generalizations, comparisons, and abstractions cause a pupil to be ready for the final step: conclusion or application.

Conclusion or Application.—The conclusion naturally seeks to survey the data obtained, inspect all conditions, and check the results against the aim that was stated at the beginning of the lesson. Holding up for inspection the old ideas in comparison with the new, and formulating association that will hold the new matter in mind, are necessary at this point. Drawings, relief work, outlines, models, committing certain choice parts that make an appeal to the learner, are all a part of the application and conclusion.

The following discussion of "The Lesson Plan" is

taken from Professor W. H. Bender's book, *The Teacher at Work*. This chapter has been very helpful to hundreds of teachers in Iowa and other States, and is given here because the authors feel that Mr. Bender has, in very clear, direct language, given that which a beginning teacher needs to know about making some definite plan of procedure for teaching a lesson.

The following plan, based upon Celia Thaxter's little poem, "The Sandpiper," has been worked out as a suggestion. It is based on method units and should not be understood as necessarily intended for one recitation period. The length of recitation period, the condition of class, and the skill of the teacher all combine to determine how much can be done in one period. The plan should be made for the entire unit and indications given as to how much of this the teacher thinks he can do each period. Often smaller units that can be covered in one period may be traced through the same steps. When a comprehensive aim has been stated for a method unit requiring a number of days for full treatment, there should be sub-aims given to the pupils, so that they may see clearly each day what is to be accomplished. (In these illustrative plans, the sub-aims are not indicated, because recitation periods vary so much in length in different schools that more misunderstanding is probable from attempted divisions in these than there will be to let each stand as a unit.)

In the "subject-matter" column there is not much opportunity for originality on the part of the teacher. The subject itself, the condition of the class, and the nature of the mind determine in the main what he must do. On the side of "method" the teacher has abundant opportunity to work out original questions, illustrations,

and other devices that will lead the pupil's mind sensibly along the way the subject and mind combined require that it should go. Method proper, based as it is on the mind and the matter, is almost a constant thing; devices may vary, and should do so for different classes and localities. It is hoped these suggestions may aid not only in making plans but in the higher function of execution in the exercises of the recitation hour. They should be regarded as illustrations of principles and not as devices to be copied.

All thoughtful teachers realize that the mind follows a certain order in learning. Yet, to indicate in outline the steps in such a process as that of teaching results in more or less rigidity of relation of topics. These orderly steps glide imperceptibly into each other, but in preparation and in giving a lesson the teacher must recognize each in its proper place and make it as complete as possible before leading the pupil into the advance movement. It should be remembered that there are times when the work in a particular step may be done very quickly, a few short, sharp questions being sufficient. There may be instances when the minds of the pupils seem to leap to conclusions without going through the processes for which the teacher had planned. On such occasions that part of the plan should be abandoned and the next division be taken up at once. It is just as probable, however, that the contrary conditions may sometimes prevail. Some steps in some lessons or with certain classes or subjects may take whole recitation periods on that one division. The teacher's good sense must be the guide here, and certain steps be canvassed quickly or surveyed in a leisurely manner as the occasion may require. These conditions will be met all the

more readily, however, by the person who plans carefully. At first one learns to do a thing through consciousness of what he is doing. In the beginning the teacher is conscious of the steps—the pupil need not be so—and gradually the former acquires power to do the right thing unconsciously, which is the thing desired to be reached by this planning.

THE SANDPIPER

"Across the narrow beach we flit,
One little sandpiper and I:
And fast I gather, bit by bit,
The scattered driftwood bleached and dry.
The wild waves reach their hands for it,
The wild wind raves, the tide runs high,
As up and down the beach we flit—
One little sandpiper and I.

Above our heads the sullen clouds
Scud black and swift across the sky;
Like silent ghosts in misty shrouds
Stand out the white lighthouses high.
Almost as far as eye can reach
I see the close-reefed vessels fly,
As fast we flit along the beach—
One little sandpiper and I.

I watch him as he skims along
Uttering his sweet and mournful cry;
He starts not at my fitful song,
Or flash of fluttering drapery.
He has no thought of any wrong;
He scans me with a fearless eye.
Stanch friends are we, well tried and strong,
The little sandpiper and I.

Comrade, where wilt thou be to-night
When the loosed storm breaks furiously?

My driftwood fire will burn so bright!
To what warm shelter canst thou fly?
I do not fear for thee, though wroth
The tempest rushes through the sky;
For are we not God's children both,
Thou, little sandpiper, and I?"

—CELIA THAXTER.

READING LESSON

The Sandpiper

Aim.—In a former lesson we learned of an island lighthouse along the Atlantic coast and the life of a little girl there. In this poem we shall be allowed to see one of her feathered playmates of those days and to learn in what particular thing she decided she and the bird were alike.

SUBJECT MATTER	METHOD
A. Preparation	*A. Preparation*
White and Appledore Islands. 1. Location. 2. The little girl and her family. 3. How they came to be there. 4. How the children spent their time. 5. The sandpiper. (*a*) Size. (*b*) How it lives. (*c*) Common birds somewhat like it.	1. Locate these islands on the map and by pointing toward them. 2. Who was this little girl and how many children in the family? 3. What was her father's business on the islands? Tell how the children amused themselves. (*a*) Show the class how large you think the sandpiper to be. (*b*) Where does it live and what is its food likely to be? (*c*) Name some common birds that you think are like it.
B. Presentation	*B. Presentation*
I. Characters in the poem. Little girl. Sandpiper. The Providence that cares for all.	I. Name the living beings mentioned in the poem—seen and unseen. (Pupils should here be required to state what they have determined in their study is the general purpose of the entire poem. They should also state what the purpose of each stanza is as it is taken up.)

STANZAS

I. On the beach.
1. Little girl and sandpiper.
2. Occupation.
3. Wind and waves.

II. The weather.
1. Clouds.
2. Lighthouses.
3. Vessels.

III. The sandpiper.
1. His cry.
2. His courage.
3. Cause of his confidence.

IV. The night storm.
1. Question.
2. The little girl's condition.

C. Elaboration

(Comparison, abstraction, generalization)

1. Picture made in the first stanza.
2. Feeling aroused in the reader.
3. New parts for mental picture from second stanza.
4. Things mentioned.
5. Feeling of one there alone.
6. The calmness and confidence of the sandpiper. (Third stanza.) (Stanza four.)
7. Shelter for the bird.
8. Driftwood fire and protection for the little girl.
9. Change in feeling.
10. Feeling one's loneliness and helplessness leads him to rejoice in the assurance of protection.
11. Lonely beach, wild waves, wild winds, tide runs high, sullen

STANZAS

I. Where are they?
1. Who and what is mentioned?
2. What are they doing?
3. What kind of winds and waves?

II. What is the condition of the weather?
1. What kind of clouds?
2. How do the lighthouses seem?
3. What are the vessels doing?

III. What is the most important thing the author talks about in this stanza?
1. What does the little girl notice of his acts?
2. What shows his courage?
3. Why is he so courageous?

IV. What is coming?
1. What question does the little girl ask?
2. What does she say as to her own condition?

C. Elaboration

(Comparison, abstraction, generalization)

1. What things appear in the picture made by the first stanza?
2. What feelings does this picture arouse in you?
3. In what parts of the picture do the new things mentioned come?
4. What things are added?
5. How would one feel if out there alone and surrounded as these two stanzas show?
6. In the third stanza what things is the sandpiper said to do? How do you explain his fearlessness with the weather so threatening? How would the little girl feel without his presence?
7. What does the writer make us feel will happen to the bird?

STANZAS

clouds, scud black and swift, silent ghosts, misty shrouds, close-reefed vessels fly, mournful cry, fitful song, storm breaks furiously, wroth the tempest rushes.

12. He starts not, has no thought of any wrong, fearlessly stanch friends, comrade, my driftwood fire will burn bright, "I do not fear for thee . . . For are we not God's children both, Thou, little sandpiper, and I?"

13. There is a power that cares for all.

D. Application

"Not a sparrow falleth . . ."
"God tempers the wind . . ."
"Take no thought that ye . . ."

Reading of entire poem, by parts, by topics, by stanzas in order. Outlines as given in other parts of plan. Build series of ideas: we flit, I gather, waves reach, winds rave, tide runs, etc., Bryant's poem, "To a Waterfowl." Pictures that deepen the impression.

STANZAS

8. How did the little girl feel as to her own safety?

9. How do her feelings seem now as compared with the feeling at the close of the second stanza?

10. Why does the author create this lonely and helpless feeling in one and then arouse the more hopeful one of confidence in a protector?

11. Make a list of expressions found in the poem that have a tendency to create the feeling of loneliness and fear.

12. Another throughout the poem showing the brighter side of fearlessness and rejoicing in hope of protection.

In which part of poem are most of each found?

13. What statement can you make that applies this thought of protection to all of us at all times?

D. Application

Give quotations from Scripture and other sources that will show the same thought as conclusion reached in poem. (Poem was read under presentation to develop ideas there outlined, but it should now be re-read thoughtfully in class.) Make series of ideas using subjects and verbs. Make outlines of entire thought. Read parts at least of "To a Waterfowl." Show pictures that will clear up ideas. Commit last stanza.

The Appreciation Lesson.—The youth of to-day needs instruction in appreciation. It is easy to accept the world's goods and expect that the world owes every individual a living. Therefore our schools need to impress the youth of our land with the fact that every individual owes the world a life.

Appreciation usually means the correct reaction to music, literature, art, beauty, and fitness; to look for beautiful tones, beautiful passages and couplets, to see the deep meaning in a wonderful painting, to dislike the ugly, the untidy, the unfit, and rise to higher planes. This is necessary, but appreciation does not stop with the so-called æsthetic subjects; every student of our schools should be brought face to face with the beauty, grandeur, and importance of all subjects.

Nature study should so impress the child that he could not be found destroying a bird's nest, that he could not pass a fine, stately tree without being impressed with its beauty. Mountains, streams, green fields in all their glory ought to appeal to the growing child. Civics must be taught with the thought of appreciation for homes and their blessings. The lives of our forefathers are the foundation upon which schools, churches, public conveniences of all kinds have been built. No young man should come to maturity without regard for the sacrifices of former years. Our civics and history teaching should inspire the youth to greater respect for law and a fine regard for past nation-builders.

An illustration of the plan used by a fifth grade civics teacher when developing "home civics" is given below. Her aim was to awaken a spirit of appreciation on the part of the children for the many conveniences they were enjoying.

The assignment was: "Find out by talking with your parents, or any one else, what conveniences there are around your homes, both in the house and outside, or in the town, that make your town a very pleasant place in which to live."

The next day the class brought in an excellent report,

consisting of many items that indicated careful study. Among these were running water, paving, sewer system, parks, churches, and schools.

They were led to see that all these enjoyable conveniences had not come by chance, but were the result of labor and sacrifice on the part of citizens and neighbors who had paid taxes for many years to make these blessings possible. The final question that really made the boys and girls think and appreciate the situation was: "Do we as boys and girls owe anybody anything for these excellent conditions?" Hence the lesson which has for its aim the making and guidance of appreciation is important.

Habit Formation.—Habits make life possible in this "hurry flurry" world. Actions, thoughts, and associations once formed become habitual. Habit formation is therefore a necessary part of school work. To make many of the common activities of the schoolroom automatic and to increase skill in manipulation are the purposes of this procedure. Nature has so constituted the individual that repetition is the only means by which habits can be formed. The teacher of mathematics, English, and penmanship must not only plan to increase the body of knowledge in these subjects, but she must plan for drills, exercises, and devices that will ultimately fix habits of accuracy and speed in the use of all the common tools of knowledge. According to Thorndike in his *Education*, skill is an important matter in education.

> No one would assert that skill is the total aim, and no one would deny that it is a fraction of the aim, of education. The chief facts about it which are likely to pass unnoticed are: its appropriateness where the effort to give knowledge is relatively

wasteful, and its service as an impersonal pleasure. Skill, as in the trades or household arts, can be got, even in high degree, by boys and girls who, by lack of capacity or interest or both, can get little knowledge of general principles. So, in proportion as schools are attended by a wider and wider selection and retain the unscholarly types till sixteen or eighteen instead of ten, twelve, or fourteen, skill becomes properly a larger and larger factor in their proximate aims. Skill may also be, for almost all individuals to some extent, and for some sorts of individuals to a very great extent, a source of impersonal pleasure. The taste for workmanship—the impulse to do the job as it should be done—making a first-rate product by fit means—is one of the most easily developed, but also one of the best, virtues. It is commonly more truly cultural or refining than an interest in correct manners, speech, or opinions about the fine arts, because it is commonly more sincere and less tainted with ostentation.

All habit formation is increased in efficiency if the learner knows that the habit is to be of use. This reveals the fact that motivation is necessary. The teacher will endeavor to show the pupil through illustration and example that in order to write rapidly and accurately one must practise to write well; one needs to practise with certain aims of good penmanship in mind.

The following laws taken from James's *Talks to Teachers* indicate the importance of habit formation:

(1) We must take care to launch ourselves with as strong and decided an initiative as possible.

(2) Never suffer an exception to occur until the habit is securely rooted in your life.

(3) Seize the very first possible opportunity to act on every resolution in the direction of the habits you aspire to gain.

Teaching Pupils to Study.—College and high-school teachers frequently complain that their students do not

know how to study. If this be true, then teachers ought to spend time in teaching children how to master themselves. Study means more than mere passive reading of a text-book. Study the use of books and materials for the purpose of understanding the subject in hand. To study implies concentration, earnestness, zeal, and diligent effort. To study is to observe, to weigh, to analyze, and at last to arrive at some definite conclusion.

Before boys and girls can be students and study without wasting time, they must realize why study is important. If the normal child can be made to see that to study and work out certain definite tasks is as much a business as building a house, keeping books, or running a farm he will be interested. If he can see logical steps of procedure and after more or less direction and advice can see his task ahead and its possible solution, he will enter into study just as naturally as any workman who has a plan. What can the teacher do to help train boys and girls to study? The following suggestions are given:

1. *By Studying with Them.*—Many a child does not have the first idea of study. Pages are read again and again and nothing is accomplished. The teacher will do well to assign a lesson, then immediately assume the rôle of a pupil and begin to study with them; seek the aim, look for what is required. What is given? What do we know about this now? Where must we go to find material on this problem? Does this material answer our questions? What conclusion can we form?

2. By requiring pupils to accomplish definite ends in certain specified ways.

(*a*) Require speed tests, such, for example, as reading a certain paragraph and in a certain time giving the thought. Give similar tests in arithmetic.

(*b*) Answer definite questions on assignments.

(*c*) Asking thought-provoking questions.

(*d*) Requiring conclusions as following certain statements.

(*e*) Dramatization of reading lessons.

(*f*) The assignment of projects and problems for study and report in class.

Each of the above suggestions should be expanded, but in a book of this type too much space cannot be given to the method of procedure. The teacher needs to employ all the ingenuity and teaching power that she possesses in order to lead boys and girls to study intelligently.

3. By removing difficulties that prevent study.

(*a*) The child gains much information before entering school. He comes from a world of object lessons and he has learned through first-hand knowledge. Now he comes into a "book" world and must be helped over the discouragements of getting lessons from texts.

(*b*) Impure air, bad light, uncomfortable seats, disorder, and a teacher who talks too loud or too much, make it impossible for pupils to concentrate upon their lessons. These should be remedied if possible.

The Project Method.—Teaching by projects is defined by various writers as "a large topic," "a problem," or "whole-hearted, purposeful activity." Generally speaking, a project indicates a more or less complex problem placed before a class or an individual to be solved by reference not only to books but also to experiences more or less common in the world outside of a classroom. The question or problem is stated and definite suggestions as to the means of solution are given.

One cause for this method gripping the average child

is that it carries out the idea of solving a problem. Somewhere in the distance there is an answer, and the child realizes that his task is then finished—when he has found that answer. It suggests the idea of a race, a goal to be reached, a definiteness that appeals to him.

Again, a tactful teacher will lead a pupil to formulate or suggest his own problem, and this in itself is an assurance of persistent effort.

Problems and projects are not considered by all as having the same extent. A project generally indicates a greater field and a more sustained effort. Thus a greater length of time will be required to finish it. Problems in any lesson make for interest. "The next lesson will be about Iowa" lacks the spirit and grip of: "Why is corn one of the greatest crops in Iowa"? The teacher should aim to place such problems before her classes in all subjects. Pupils learn to think and to use judgment under such conditions, where only mechanical and unspirited results follow the ordinary question.

Projects may cover long periods of time, and results are obtained only after data have been secured and facts compiled. The project may mean the construction of charts and other articles in order to arrive at the desired result. The keeping of a weather chart for one month or the making of a flower and bird chart during the spring are other good examples of projects. The building of a Holland scene showing canals and windmills and the cause for their existence would be an excellent sand table project.

The Assignment.—One of the most important activities in the classroom is the assignment of lessons. Upon this one procedure depends much of the success for both

teacher and pupil. If poor assignments are made, then poor results are quite as sure to follow.

A good assignment is to a pupil what a good blueprint or building plan is to the mechanic or carpenter. What master carpenter would say to his workman: "There is the lumber, the brick, the sand, the cement; go build a building"? He would know better, for his workmen would immediately demand plans and specifications as to whether the building was to be a garage, a barn, or a schoolhouse, as well as other definite instructions. Yet how many teachers are guilty of making assignments similar to the following: "Take the next four pages; class is excused."

A lesson assignment ought to prepare pupils for work upon the advanced lesson outside the recitation period. It should be so well made that the pupil can take his directions and go to work. Any task to be done outside the classroom or away from the teacher's direction requires an assignment. The assignment should include the following important elements:

(1) A definite statement of the problem or the goal to be reached.

(2) Suggested source of information.

a. Library books. b. Magazines. c. Observations.

(3) Directions as to how to proceed, what pages in the reading material to omit, which points to get carefully.

(4) Suggestions that will help the pupil to see the relation of past experiences with the new.

(5) Make some assignments that will require:

(*a*) An individual student to report on a special topic.

(*b*) A group of students to report on some topic in which they each take some part according to their own arrangement.

(6) Assignments for class members ought to vary according to ability.

A teacher who understands her class appreciates the fact that there are usually three types of pupils to be considered: the bright, capable pupil, who will get the entire assignment; the average pupil, who will do average work, and the dull or slow pupil, who will not be able to cover as much ground as either of the other two. The problem can only be solved by assigning enough work to keep each type of child working at top speed. This, of course, indicates more or less individual assignments.

The Recitation.—Most of the above discussion in this chapter involves the class period. The recitation is an exercise in which the pupils report upon the assignments made, and the teacher brings together these points to develop the complete idea to be left in the child's mind. This is the time for the master-workman (the teacher) to check up on requirements. Pupils exchange ideas, and at the close of the recitation many dark places should be made light. The recitation should close with every pupil ready to go to his seat feeling that something had been accomplished.

Aims of the Recitation.—The aims of the recitation as given by Doctor W. T. Harris are:

(1) To draw out each pupil's view of the lesson and to test his grasp of the subject.

(2) To correct the pupil's wrong impressions and enlarge his horizon by comparing his views with those of the other members of the class.

(3) To arouse interest in the next lesson, stimulate pupils to study it, and to direct their study.

(4) To cultivate the habit of close and continuous attention.

(5) To bring out the teacher's highest powers as an instructor and leader.

(6) To supplement what the pupil gives.

(7) To inspire self-activity, power of independent study, and keen insight.

(8) To teach pupils the great advantages of helpful co-operation with others.

(9) To help the pupil to overcome harmful individual peculiarities.

According to the discussion of the assignment, the recitation may take many forms, viz.:

The Topical Recitation.—Pupils in this case may give the results of their investigations. They may recite from topical outline, or subject, thus acting as committees and subcommittees of investigation. The class as a whole may be held responsible for certain large facts.

The Question and Answer Recitation.—This form of recitation is common, but the chief difficulty here is the fact that teachers are sometimes poor questioners. "Yes" and "no" questions and memory questions constitute the chief varieties. Questions of narrow scope that suggest the result or that are framed in certain phrases of the book and suggest the proper answer are of no value for thought inspiration. Questions should possess the following characteristics if they are to secure results:

(1) Be definite, direct, and pointed. If a pupil knows what is required and there are no involved phrases in the

question he can think straight and arrive at a definite answer.

(2) Must require effort. A question so formed that the clue to the answer is conveyed to the pupil is not a good type of question. Leading questions that simply require the assent of the pupil to a fact just stated by the teacher do not require any thought. Such a question as "Bricks are made of clay, are they not?" indicates the answer. Questions must be framed so that the child must put forth effort.

(3) Must be varied. Some teachers cast every question in the same mould. Children soon get into the habit of answering such questions mechanically. Interest is lost and the recitation becomes very tiresome.

(4) Must be well distributed over the class and over the subject in hand. Every pupil should feel that he is to be held responsible for his share of the lesson. Questions should be directed toward the whole class, giving all a chance to think before any one is called upon to answer.

Socialized Recitation.—Educators are maintaining that school should represent life itself and not merely prepare for life. To socialize the curriculum and the schoolroom procedure is the demand of the present education. Pupils are not only required to know certain facts and acquire ability to reason and give attention, but they are also to be taught through the schools the social content of all these elements in the curriculum. The pupil is to be brought face to face with life, and in as large a degree as possible he is to measure subject-matter and course-content with "life's yardstick." Exercises of various kinds can be introduced into the school program that will bring about the socializing effect. Some of the

most common and the easiest to introduce are mentioned below.

(1) Asking certain pupils to look up special topics and report to the class.

(2) Group assignments. This involves choosing, selecting, and management on the part of the pupils themselves. Co-operation and consideration for other class members is the aim. Each individual has a part to play and unless he takes his part the class suffers loss.

(3) Organizing the class with students as active officers and the teacher acting as a steadying influence. The teacher may start the work by asking one pupil to open the discussion. After the pupil has finished others may stand and be recognized by the chairman and allowed to speak.

(4) Literary societies, boys and girls' organizations in which they are made responsible.

(5) Bulletin board upon which clippings and pictures of current affairs can be posted. Questions may be asked by the class and answered by the one who brought the clipping.

(6) A sand-table that may be used by advanced classes to represent scenes in foreign countries and bring out life situations.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. How would you increase interest in geography? Civics? Arithmetic?
2. Illustrate how you would teach a lesson in percentage by the inductive method.
3. Suppose you begin teaching in a certain school and find that the pupils cannot study effectively. What can you do about it?
4. List a number of devices that you would use to increase

habits of rapidity and accuracy in reading, writing, arithmetic, and language.

5. What comparison is there between a building contractor, with several carpenters working under him, and a teacher who is assigning a lesson to a class?
6. How much talking should a teacher indulge in while teaching?
7. How would you develop an appreciation for: history, literature, and nature?
8. Prepare a set of questions in geography on one of the following topics:
   (*a*) Capital of your State.
   (*b*) Chicago.
   (*c*) Mississippi River.
   (*d*) The corn-growing section of the United States.
9. Suppose you want to take your eighth-grade class down to the bank for a study of banking papers (checks, deposit slips, notes, etc.). Outline your plan and what you expect your class to get out of it.
10. You are anxious to begin the socialized recitation with your eighth grade. How would you proceed? What precautions would you take? Outline your plan.
11. What are the characteristics of a good assignment?
12. Illustrate what is meant by elaboration and comparison.
13. What are the characteristics of a good questioner?
14. What arguments can you give for or against planning lessons daily?

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CHAPTER XX

THE TEACHER

In this text, thus far, much attention has been given to the equipment, management, and many other topics of importance in the organization and maintenance of a school. In this, the last, chapter the most important factor is to be given the right of way. All other trains of thoughts will be "sidetracked" and this "*greatest of all*" will be given the main line with "through" traveling orders.

School boards, parents, county superintendents, city school superintendents, and some *few teachers* realize that buildings, equipment, pupils, interested parents, school boards, and all that one could wish will not make a school unless in that school there is a *real teacher*.

The Teacher a Moulder of Character and Citizenship. She is one of the leaders, if not *the* leader, of the community, because of her training, her interests in education, her outlook, her good judgment, and her high ideals. She is an example for every child under her direction. If this example is good, then the children are being trained unconsciously for a greater citizenship.

She takes the children at the most formative period of their lives. At this age it is as natural as breathing for the little ones to imitate, especially "their teacher," who stands in their sight as the ideal. Thus they lay the foundation for habits while they are helpless in the

matter of judging what they want, or should have, in that future of theirs. Does the teacher realize that these days, seemingly unimportant, may be making for lifelong strength of character and joy, or for a faded, useless existence? Again, it may be a tragic story for which she would not care to share the credit. If she is a skilled teacher, the parents need not fear for the welfare of their children. They are in good hands. There she stands as the "parent," guardian, adviser, and the only helper that these boys and girls have during the school day. The parents have been ever on the alert, watching constantly by night and by day every development and every peculiarity, and *now*, like a dreaded enemy, the school takes the little helpless, untrained human beings out of their homes to mingle with other children and to be given those ideals of "the teacher." Do you blame that anxious mother who brings her little one to school on that first day, and hastens away as soon as possible toward her lonesome home, for quietly wiping away glistening tears? How she hopes and prays that "the teacher" is really and truly *a teacher*, who will supplement and further the training that she has started.

Teacher Trains Heart, Hand, and Establishes Ideals. Teaching the child to read and write is not the only task the teacher has to perform. This teacher is going to establish in his mind, through precept and example, certain ideals of education that will cause him to strive for the highest point educationally that is within his reach. She will lead him to form health habits that will follow him throughout life; such as providing fresh air, exercise, brushing teeth, breathing deeply, drinking milk, taking time to masticate food, and keeping a

clean body. She will be instrumental in helping the pupil to sense his relationship to right and wrong. He is now placed in the midst of perplexing situations. The good teacher will assist him to determine the right in an unseen but quiet manner. Thus this little citizen is learning and "catching" heart training. In the matter of industry he is discovering how to stay by a task until it is finished. Another phase of training that will most certainly come in this many-sided school is the willingness to do the task over again if it is not up to standard. Thus the teacher trains not only the head but also the heart and the hand.

Characteristics of a Good Teacher

Some one has said that the characteristics of a good teacher are similar to those of any good workman. This is true, but a teacher's work is of such a different nature, and of so much more importance, that a discussion of the outstanding points seems best. These characteristics have been divided into three main heads: training, personal qualities, physical traits.

I. Training

Academic.—The first essential qualification of a good teacher is scholarship. Certainly if State authorities require that their teachers reach certain standards before accepting a position, it is a sign that the State places a premium on preparation.

To know well what one attempts to teach is the first essential qualification. Degrees and diplomas will not answer unless they stand for good, sound preparation. A preparation is demanded that places the teacher in

possession of a vastly larger amount of information than she can ever use before the class. She must be so well prepared that she can draw on a full storehouse of knowledge.

Ample preparation for the task of teaching makes that task enjoyable because then, and only then, is the teacher master of the situation. She knows how to lead a child into subjects which to the unprepared hold no hidden treasures of interest. She knows so much more than the ordinary teacher that she virtually fills her position to overflowing, and the boys and girls cannot help but "catch" the impulse of her enthusiasm. *Disorder is an uncommon thing in the schoolroom.* The children apparently have no time for mischief, since interest in the accomplishment of the work set by their energetic, studious teacher controls their time and directs their energy.

An army cannot have confidence in its leader unless the individuals in that army know that their leader understands his business. Likewise in the schoolroom, preparation begets confidence. Boys and girls admire the teacher who *knows* and can carry over to them, in an effective way, the lessons that are to be taught.

However, it is not enough that the teacher knows how to work problems, knows some of the important facts in history, and is thoroughly grounded academically. She must also have a knowledge of the teaching and learning processes. She should know the child's mind and be able to appreciate his problems.

Professional.—As suggested above, to know subject-matter alone is not enough to equip a teacher for the teaching task. The science of teaching includes: (1) Psychology, which must always carry with it a study of

the child's mind, its means and methods of development, and a thorough study of the laws of mental growth. (2) Methods as a means and a guide in making effective the principles and laws of psychology. (3) School management, which seeks to adjust the teacher to conditions in and surrounding the school. (4) The observation of expert teaching and the making of lesson plans under a wide-awake supervisor. (5) Practice teaching under competent and sympathetic supervision.

Professional Spirit.—Some teachers may not be able financially to secure the preparation that they wish. This is not a crime, but if a teacher continues to teach with no thought of further training, especially if her preparation in the first place has been limited, she is committing a crime not only against herself but against the profession and the children of the school.

A teacher who will not take advantage of the many opportunities offered by which she may improve herself *while teaching* is not worthy of the profession. Too many are satisfied with the grade of certificate now held, and make no effort to improve.

When obtaining the services of professional people, such as lawyers and physicians, their clients and patients seek to employ those men and women who keep "up" with the latest and best in their profession. No one wishes to employ the doctor who spends his spare time sitting at his desk reading cheap literature while the best medical magazines and "up-to-date" medical books receive none of his attention. Such a man never attends medical associations, spends no time during the summer months attending clinics in city hospitals, where expert advice could be received. No, this doctor has his degree and is now a "finished product." He does

not need further training. What a calamity for his patients. Their physician has stopped growing; in fact, he is dead "at the top."

In the teaching profession, as in every profession, there are many avenues open to training. The teacher who is really in earnest about the matter can find many means of growth. Some of these will be mentioned in succeeding paragraphs.

Daily Growth in Teaching.—While teaching several classes each day for a period of nine months, the teacher must certainly improve as the days pass, if she is trying to take advantage of every means to make her work better. She should be a *better teacher* at the end of the term than when she began, or the ability to learn and profit by error and success is lacking. Teaching many classes and many subjects, she has a great opportunity to weigh methods of instruction, measure her own success, apply principles that have been suggested, and finally come to some definite decisions that will make for better and more determined effort the next year. The teacher who does not grow from year to year during her active teaching life is not doing herself or the profession justice and must expect to be outdistanced by those who do.

Reading Good Professional Books and Magazines.—Many excellent books on education dealing with every possible phase of the profession are now available. The progressive teacher will accumulate a good library in which these books will be found. She will not be asking her county superintendent if she *must* read an educational book in order to receive credit toward the renewal of her certificate. Rather it is to be hoped that she will have a desire for such books. Her ruts will not become

so deep and long. New ideas that are being tried elsewhere are given to her through these pages. Since she wants to keep in touch with the educational world, she studies and gleans from these books points which not only make her a stronger teacher, but her pupils and the entire community are helped because of her educational growth.

A teacher ought to avail herself of at least one good professional magazine best fitted for her particular needs, in order to keep in touch with current educational topics. Many valuable suggestions are given by other active workers in a similar field. The magazine is a reflector of the thoughts, plans, methods, and devices of the most progressive teachers. Many probably look upon some magazine articles as fads and "wild-cat" schemes—and no doubt many of them are; but teachers who are progressive and on the alert for suggestions often find the very help they have needed in a good educational magazine.

Educational Meetings and Teachers' Organizations.—Teachers' institutes, teachers' study centers, State and district teachers' meetings are organized and conducted for the benefit of teachers in service. Many avail themselves of these meetings because they feel that discussions, papers, and lectures on various topics are to be given and they wish to secure help. The writer has discovered that the young, inexperienced girls, perhaps a group of the normal training girls from the local high school, give better attention to discussions in hand than some of the older teachers. This attitude is not, of course, characteristic of all older teachers, but when discovered it indicates that such individuals are about ready to receive their last monthly pay check. A

teacher must, of all people, be progressive not only in name and appearance but likewise in practice. He who would grow must add to the grist.

Further Training.—To hold a degree in the teaching profession is an excellent accomplishment. To hold all teachers to such high standards would be unfair perhaps. However, it indicates that the possessor means business and intends to give the best. But what can be said of that teacher who does not keep up his educational reading, never attends educational meetings or displays the least interest after he has attained his degree? He is like a fine-appearing tree that is dead at the heart and will soon be blown down.

A teacher cannot continue for a period of years without "adding to his stature" educationally. Summer schools, correspondence courses of high standard, have been established to help those who wish to raise their qualifications. Nothing is more detrimental to the profession than to have a great number of third-class teachers, who do not care to do more than the law requires, and who resent any suggestion concerning better preparation. Such characters do not deserve to be called "teachers."

Travel.—To-day with automobiles as a means of touring, and with special rates on railroad and steamship, there is no reason why the tired teacher cannot secure some first-hand information for her class in geography or history during the summer months. Such an education can often be supplemented by post-cards, relics, and booklets that will add much to the interest in the classroom. Would that more teachers could secure first-hand information about the subject-matter with which they deal. This might prevent some of the absurd teach-

ings of our profession. Many of the "doughboys" who were privileged to spend some time in Paris during the World War were often heard to remark: "Oh, yes, I went through the Louvre in just one hour and thirty minutes." To think that one of the greatest art galleries in the world could have been seen in one and one-half hours is absurd; a gallery filled with original paintings, the work of famous sculptors, antiques of rare value, enough material to keep a person busy for months if one had the time to spend. Of course it would be impossible to prepare oneself properly to see everything in the Louvre unless the observer were a student of art. If a teacher plans a trip for the summer vacation, she should make a study of the territory over which she is to travel and determine that she will secure some first-hand information for her teaching work. This in itself is equal to or better than a summer of study.

Understand the Age Groups of Children.—Every teacher must understand the age of the group of children with whom she is to deal. If teachers would somehow put themselves in the children's places for a time, what results could be accomplished. Children may be placed in three groups: primary, intermediate, and upper grade. Each division represents a distinct type, and must be dealt with accordingly.

Primary Years.—This group consists of little boys and girls who come fresh from an active play life; they have been playing store and school. In fact, nearly all of their activity has been play. They have not realized that they are boys and girls, they have not stopped to think about this yet, just little, active, wriggling, moving, growing animals that are absorbing much of the world per minute during waking hours.

Happy is the teacher who is to teach primary children! But she must understand these little bundles of wriggling humanity, for if she insists on their being quiet every moment, if she has no place on her program for "wriggling," or, in other words, change of occupation, she may ruin the child for life. These little folks are ready for suggestions. They love to do the bidding of the teacher. "Teacher" receives apples and candy, but her gifts do not stop here; she is loved "to death" by these little admirers, and everywhere the teacher goes she is greeted by smiles and praise by boys and girls alike. What a golden opportunity to do a large piece of work with little people.

To be a good primary teacher means:

(*a*) Love and understanding of little children.

(*b*) Ability to appreciate their little problems.

(*c*) Knowledge of many good games and devices that have in them teaching power.

(*d*) Ability to lead untrained minds into new fields.

The Intermediate Grades.—The scene has changed and the same little harmless chaps that such a short time before had been interested in calling the teacher endearing names now begin to dislike school; they begin to have opinions of their own, and decide that the teacher is not as loving and as dear to them as she once was; they call her the "old crank" or the "old lady," and assume that she is standing between them and a good time.

The child at this age is very different from what he was in former years. He is energetic, his eyes dance with life, he is a veritable dynamo teeming with power ready to be used; but unless there is gainful employment, nothing is accomplished. He has his strong likes

and dislikes. The child develops a life of its own outside the home circle and the school's influence, and his natural interests are never so independent of adult influence. He is beginning to weigh in his own mind many things that he heretofore has taken more or less for granted. He no doubt wears the worst side out, and the teacher only sees the one side; perchance he does not comb his hair, nor does he keep his shoes shined, and he persists in telling every one, by his actions, how tough he is. But what of a young inexperienced teacher who is placed in charge of a room full of giggling, foolish girls and boisterous, thoughtless boys. These children are at heart the best in the world, but on the outside they make their poor, nervous, worried teacher feel that the struggle is not worth the effort. What do these boys and girls need?

(*a*) A teacher who understands that boys at this age wear the worst side out and leave it to their teachers to find the boy. A teacher who understands that foolish, giggling girls do not mean what their actions seem to say.

(*b*) A teacher who will gain the confidence of her pupils and try to set them right in their periods of unbelief and unrest, and one who is willing to go more than half way to assist a child in difficulty.

(*c*) A teacher who is so near to life in general that illustrative material and activities in the schoolroom are so lifelike and natural that the children can easily see the relation between school lessons, home, and street problems.

(*d*) A leader in the schoolroom who is full to overflowing of the subjects that she is teaching; so full, in fact, that as she teaches these active "live wires" may

be so inspired and attentive that they forget to throw paper wads and think of nothing but the subject in hand. This cannot be done by the text-book lecture method. It requires something alive, not the dry bones of past ages served on a casket lid.

(*e*) A course of study must be made with the child and his needs as the central thought, and not one to fit the whims and desires of a few pedagogues who wish to try out some new fad. Again, in administering this course much thought and careful planning must be used that children's natures and interests may be considered.

The Upper Grade Child.—Again the scene has changed and these reckless, boisterous young Americans have come, without our realizing it, into a new stage. In some cases the change may be abrupt. They comb their hair now; the girls have stopped their foolish giggling, and the teacher in great surprise asks: "What has happened?" These children are now passing through the period of adolescence; the period in which ideals are formed. Old interests die and new instincts are born. This is a period of doubt, of debate and speculation. The youth is casting about for heroes. Men and women of noble character make their appeal to him. He is beginning to form habits now that will follow him through life.

The adolescent child is not a serious problem in the country school, because the older children are not present, but sometimes the adolescent period appears early in the child's life, and the teacher needs to be ready for the emergency. What the child needs at this period is:

(*a*) A teacher with the highest ideals of life.

(*b*) A teacher that has sympathy for the strange doubts and fears of youth.

(*c*) A teacher that is a leader and capable of leading young people.

(*d*) A teacher well qualified educationally.

Executive Ability.—One of the greatest needs in the teaching profession to-day is teachers who are willing to devote some time to the business side of teaching. If teachers could realize that the future welfare of the children under their direction as well as the prosperity of the school depended upon the completeness and accuracy of their reports, they would consider these important points more seriously. The promotion of the pupils, their classification for the next year, the needed supplies, and the basis for future financial support are all affected by the reports. She should earnestly apply herself to the task of keeping them up each day. If she will do this she will have no difficulty at the close of the term in making all reports for which she is responsible.

Good Housekeeper.—The writers have been in schoolrooms that had been cleaned properly by the board before the teacher entered for the term's work. The evidences of poor housekeeping were noticeable as follows:

(*a*) The teacher herself, for she reflected in her personal appearance the condition of the room.

(*b*) The teacher's desk was covered with books and papers scattered in every direction. (A condition that only at times is excusable.)

(*c*) Books and materials in the library and in the pupils' and teachers' desk were not in order.

(*d*) Floor covered with bits of paper.

(*e*) Wraps and overshoes (in season) thrown at hooks and racks and not placed in order.

(*f*) Pictures and decorations hanging at various angles.

(*g*) Dust of several days (perhaps ages) collected in nooks and corners.

Many other conditions might be mentioned, bringing out the fact that far too many teachers are poor housekeepers.

On the other hand, the writer has visited some schoolrooms that indicated the greatest of care in all matters pertaining to order and neatness. The teacher reflected in her dress and manner the conditions of the schoolroom, that could not have been otherwise than neat and orderly.

Community Mixer.—One of the greatest causes of failure in the teaching profession is not a lack of method or knowledge of subject-matter, but a lack of getting in touch with the neighborhood. The teacher must know the patrons and the taxpayers of the school and have the ability to use all for the upbuilding of a better school. This has been emphasized in the section dealing with the "Home" and also in the chapter on "The Community Center." In the section on the rural home we brought out the relation of the teacher to the homes of the children in her school. In the consideration of the community center, and likewise here, the relation of the teacher to the whole community is discussed.

Visiting Homes.—As has been indicated in the discussion on "The Rural Home," the teacher must consider the community in her program of activities. She must know the homes, and to accomplish this she must make definite plans for visiting them. Such visitation is for the following purposes: To become acquainted with parents, to know their temperaments, their ideals, and the environment which they place around their children. The teacher not only needs to know these

conditions about the home of the children in her school, but to be a thorough community worker she also must have some knowledge of all the homes within her territory. This knowledge need not be so complete perhaps for non-patron homes, but there should be at least some acquaintance.

Will Stay in the Neighborhood.—Nothing is more detrimental to the success of country schools and small-town schools than to find the workers in these institutions not interested enough in rural people to stay in the country part of the time. It is almost impossible to communicate enthusiasm to people by mere talk. They enjoy seeing some action. Years ago the teacher boarded around, and in so doing learned to know the people, and was one of the neighborhood. The best teachers are the ones who live in the neighborhood and take their place in rural society, but to-day we have a new variety, known as the "suitcase type." She keeps her suitcase packed all week, and takes it to school with her Friday morning, all ready for an early start home that evening. She usually has only a half-hour period at noon, so as to "get out" at three-thirty. Promptly at that time "some one" drives up in a fine big car, and away they go to the nearby town. "Some time" Sunday night this teacher arrives with her suitcase. Monday morning dawns all too soon, and the school children have a cranky, sleepy, disinterested teacher for Monday, who is already living in anticipation and longing for Friday afternoon. This type of teacher really does not have the interests of the school at heart. What we need to-day in rural communities are teachers who will make an effort to live where they may become a part of the neighborhood and in so doing gain the confidence and

co-operation of the patrons. Only by social contact and first-hand knowledge of the people who live in the district is it possible to do the best work.

Assisting in Community Activities.—In every community there are activities of interest to the people residing in that locality. The teacher who desires to be of the most service will plan on doing her share.

Of course, outside activity can be carried to extremes by the over-energetic individual, therefore due consideration of all that is to be done is necessary. A teacher should attend her own church and if possible take a part in some one thing, such as singing in the choir or possibly teaching a Sunday-school class. If she is a lodge member she ought to help a little, even though it is only to attend lodge once in a while, to show her interest.

II. Personal Traits

Initiative and Originality.—To be a leader requires the ability to initiate, to do independent thinking, to form plans, and to carry forward. A teacher must co-operate, of course, with all those with whom she works, but there are times when she needs to depend upon her own judgment. She cannot go to the superintendent with every little thing that arises. The course of study is placed in her hands, and she is told to "work it out." This indicates that she is to use her own methods. Happy is the superintendent who knows that he has teachers on his faculty or in his county who have the ability and the originality to go ahead when something new is suggested, and he is quite sure that results are forthcoming. Again, that teacher who takes care of most of her own difficulties in discipline is a joy to the superintendent, for no

act on the part of a teacher shows her weakness so much as the securing of the superintendent's help in every little matter that arises.

Co-operation.—Co-operation means working together, acting jointly for a common end. This indicates that there must be at least two parties in any plan of co-operation. Teachers, by the very nature of their task, are working with other people; with the county superintendent if a rural teacher, with the city superintendent if a city teacher, patrons, boys and girls, and the citizens of the community. A co-operative spirit is, of course, opposed to the idea of driving ahead without considering "the other fellow." However, this does not mean that one is to be swayed by every current of opinion that comes, but by a spirit of "living and let live," of giving and taking, of fitting oneself into a situation that will make for success.

Enthusiasm and Optimism.—Teaching requires an immense amount of enthusiasm. There is no task that saps the nerve force more. To keep up the spirit of the school the teacher must supply much of the life. A dead, uninterested teacher can never leave the desired impressions. The example of her spirit and power is an element of influence. A sunny, cheerful, lively spirit wins children's hearts more surely than words. Certainly such a spirit of enthusiasm makes like virtues in the child. This character building material is generally "caught rather than taught."

Common Sense.—From White's *School Management:* "Another element of governing ability is common sense—practical wisdom in dealing with the little affairs that make up school life. Common sense is not sense to all persons, but sense in common things—practical wisdom

in dealing with common affairs. The adjective has slipped away from the noun which it qualifies."

Common sense, as thus defined, is an important factor in school discipline. It knows when to speak and when to keep silent, when to make request and when to command, when to commend, how and when to put its hand on a child's head, how to appease him when aggrieved, how to unlock the door to his heart, how to find a side door when the front door is bolted with anger or obstinacy, and how to come up on the right side of a displeased patron. Common sense does not turn its ears in all directions to catch flattery or criticism, does not thrust itself into the pranks of pupils, and does not lose sleep over useless worries. It desires real progress and keeps faith and step with right and duty.

Sincerity.—Teachers who do their best in every line are quite sure to succeed. "To do one's best" means that all the ideals and highest ambitions capable of being awakened are honestly made to function. To be led by the whim and desire of every "wind that blows," to be turned aside from duty indicates insincerity. Those who expect to influence others must first have convictions themselves, then prove to the world by taking a definite stand that they have sincere purposes and mean to live up to them. To look upon the teaching profession in any other way is to weaken it at its very fountain head. Nothing is more disappointing to the youth than to find his ideal untrue. *Teacher, be true* to your convictions.

Sympathy.—The power to scold, the ability to whip within an inch of the finishing point, or the reputation of having the shaking instinct equal to that of a cement and gravel mixer was at one time the qualification of a good teacher.

To-day, patrons are looking for the person who has cultivated sympathy, but does not overlook discipline and thus spoil the child. Parents want a teacher who is really watching for a chance to say a word of encouragement and praise, when such can be given. Children, like older people, have feelings with which one must reckon. They have periods of remorse and sadness peculiar only to certain types of children. Sympathy and the ability to see these problems with the child, and for the time being to tide him over this storm period, is a wonderful qualification. Boys and girls know when they have done their very best, and they need to be encouraged. John has been one of your most troublesome boys, and at this particular time he has really done his best, and you now have an opportunity to go down to his seat and view his work. Which of the following phrases do you think you ought to say to John? "That's fine FOR YOU, John." "That's FINE, John."

How often teachers, taking advantage of their position, resort to sarcasm and nagging, that they may attain certain desired ends. There is nothing so small and contemptible on the part of a teacher as the use of sarcasm. It displays ignorance and lack of good judgment.

Self-control.—Self-control is a virtue often mentioned but seldom practised. There are, indeed, few elements of character more coveted and few moral defects more humiliating when lacking.

A thorough mastery of self is the first requirement. When angry parents rage, the first impulse is to attempt defense through the same channels. To be able to look up smilingly and say "Let us talk it over" is a sample of self-control.

We must not forget the fact that the parent comes in

a condition of "anger" and is not himself. You must help him to see through clear eyes and to think with a clear brain. For you to become angry at such a moment serves only to defeat your purpose. To be able to control one's temper is an accomplishment, but to control the tongue, keeping it from making cutting remarks or repeating information that will in any way hurt mankind, is just as great.

Self-control means:

(*a*) Control of temper.

(*b*) Avoidance of hasty words. "Think twice before you speak."

(*c*) Self-restraint when tempted.

(*d*) Self-restraint under provocation. "Bear and forbear."

(*e*) Rule your own spirit.

> "How happy is he born or taught
> Whose passions not his masters are;
> Lord of himself, though not of lands,
> And having nothing, yet hath all."
>
> —SIR HENRY WOTTON.

Dignity.—The teaching profession demands dignity and self-respect. To be dignified and yet not unduly so is a problem that the teacher must face. Nobleness of bearing, seriousness of purpose, and impressiveness of character—together with evidence of a human spirit—are the marks of dignity. Self-respect, betrayed alike by word and deed, presupposes regard for one's profession.

On the other hand, one must avoid snobbishness. Many well-meaning teachers have been indeed surprised on discovering by chance that they have been considered

guilty in this respect. According to Webster, a "snob" is one who has a mean opinion of station and material possessions. Let the teacher test herself. What does she admire? Does she have the ability to mingle with her patrons and not take on undesirable traits, but rather impress better ones upon the community? She must conduct herself so that those who pass can see that she possesses the qualities mentioned above.

(*a*) Nobleness of purpose.

(*b*) A serious and determined bearing.

(*c*) An impressive character.

Tact.—Again according to Webster, tact is "a quick or instinctive appreciation of what is fit, proper, or right; a fine or ready mental discernment shown in saying or doing the proper thing, especially in avoiding what would offend or disturb." To do or say the proper thing at the proper time would cover the definition. This is a virtue that needs cultivation. Tactfulness does not mean to deceive, to overlook, or to neglect duty; but it is to be on the alert to such an extent that one's plan of attack is completed when the enemy appears. In other words, it is to beat the mischief maker at his own game. Diplomacy should keep one from needlessly arousing antagonism and from uselessly irritating the individual in question. Then the principal elements of tact are:

(*a*) Keenness and sensitiveness of feeling.

(*b*) Insight into the motives of others.

(*c*) A knowledge of the consequences of conduct.

(*d*) Quickness to see details.

Sense of Humor.—What condition of man is more deplorable than that in which the droll happenings of life seem to have no place. The teaching profession is filled with serious days, and a good, wholesome joke in which

all may indulge is excellent for the "liver" in more than one sense. Clean, sound fun ought to be encouraged in every schoolroom, and the teacher will do well to feature this side of life, perhaps in the opening exercises or in language work, sometimes during the year. Of course it is understood that such a program must be under very close supervision.

Sense of Justice.—The pupils in a school have as "pupils" certain rights, and justice requires that these rights shall be respected, that each shall receive his due, and that he shall render to others that which is their due.

The teacher must often act in the capacity of judge in innumerable matters of discipline on the playground and in the schoolroom. She must be able to weigh very carefully all details and arrive at an impartial decision. Every child has more or less ability to judge for himself. The teacher should keep this fact in mind and strive to make decisions that will stand the test of the children's questioning.

Industry.—Young teachers often fail to realize the great responsibility placed upon them when they begin their first term of school. The grade teacher in the city school has an experienced superintendent, who visits her room from time to time and checks her work. She has a janitor, who takes all care of her room. She is a part of a well-organized school system, and is directly responsible to those in authority above her. The rural teacher has no one to whom she is thus directly responsible for daily activities; she is thrown upon her own resources to work out her plans both within and without the school. Because of this she must determine within herself to hold to a definite standard of activity and strive to keep herself up to that standard of industry and efficiency. The

teacher's time belongs to the district, and the success of the school comes first. In order to accomplish the above ideals the rural teacher may need to spend more time in her work than is actually called for in her contract.

Character.—"Reputation is what men and women think of us; character is what God and His angels know of us."

The most vital element of teaching and managing power is a positive moral life. Through all the channels of the school must run the silver thread of character, with its silent but far-reaching influence. After all, the ultimate aim of education is character. It is the one element of the teacher's make-up that can touch the heart and conscience of the pupil with a potency more eloquent than words. Character looks out from the windows of the soul; it sits enthroned on the countenance as an index to the inner being. It is the sum total of all that has been built into one's life. If this is true, the building material should be selected with care. The teacher must ever bear in mind that for her pupils as well as for herself character can never be purchased nor can it be "added on" hastily, since it is built day by day.

"Think truly, and thy thoughts
Shall the world's famous feed:
Speak truly, and each word of thine
Shall be a faithful seed;
Live truly, and thy life shall be
A great and noble creed."

—H. BONAR.

III. Physical Traits

Health.—A healthy body is the first prerequisite for success. A physical or mental load cannot be carried by the human machine unless all parts of the mechanism

are in excellent working condition. Since so much depends upon the teacher, it is assumed when she accepts the responsibility of the school that health is one of her greatest assets. In most cases Providence has been kind in giving her a wonderful *physique.* Now it is her duty to keep this physique in repair by proper and regular health habits. She must have cheerful and happy exercise, good, wholesome food, and plenty of refreshing sleep.

The lack of good health means generally a nagging, irritable disposition. Under such conditions a teacher is not herself, nor does she function naturally, since she is working on nervous force most of the time. Children receive blows and onslaughts from this type of individual and decide that teachers and schools are things to be avoided rather than sought.

If one finds herself worn out at the close of the day and able only to drag herself home from school, it is an indication of low vitality and lack of endurance. She needs the immediate advice of a good physician. She owes it to herself as well as to the school.

Energy.—Energy is the power for doing work. Power signifies force and strength. A teacher must possess in her very nature the ability to work because she wants to, and not because she must. She ought never to conduct herself so that the community can say that she is not doing her best, or that she could do more if she would. It would be much better to have them say: "That teacher is doing her best; she is always at work."

As has been suggested above, this matter of having power for each day's task will need to come through rest, exercise, and proper food. Then the ability to continue this power, or force, throughout the day will depend

upon how carefully the user conserves her strength. Lack of force, lack of "pep" and power, cause the downfall of many an otherwise successful teacher.

Facial Expressions.—"Do the Corners of Your Mouth Turn Up or Down?" is the title of a lecture that was given to the boys in our army camps during the war. Upon the face are written not only the present innermost feelings of the soul but also the thoughts and emotions of bygone days.

The character of the face is determined by the character of the soul. The main features of our countenance were decided by the Almighty and we cannot change them, but under God we decide whether we shall have countenances benignant or baleful, sour or sweet, wrathful or genial, benevolent or mean, honest or scoundrelly, impudent or modest, courageous or cowardly, frank or sneaking. In all the works of God there is nothing more wonderful than the human countenance. Though the longest face is less then twelve inches from hair line of the forehead to the bottom of the chin, and the broadest face is less than eight inches from cheek bone to cheek bone, yet in that small compass God hath wrought such differences that the sixteen hundred million of the human race may be distinguished from each other by their facial appearances. The face is ordinarily the index of character. It is the throne of emotions. It is the battlefield of the passions. It is the catalog of character. It is the map of the mind. It is the geography of the soul. And while the Lord decides before our birth whether we shall be handsome or homely, we are, by the character we form, deciding whether our countenances shall be pleasant or disagreeable. This is so much so that some of the most beautiful faces are unattractive because of their arrogance or their deceitfulness, and some of the most rugged and irregular features are attractive because of the kindness that shines through them. Accident or sickness or scarification may veil the face so that it shall not express the soul, but in the majority of cases give me a deliberate look at a man's countenance and I will tell you

whether he is a cynic or an optimist, whether he is a miser or a philanthropist, whether he is noble or dastardly, whether he is good or bad.

—TALMAGE.

Good Eyes and Ears.—Mr. E. E. White, in his *School Management*, gives the following: "Another element of governing ability is good eyes and good ears—the ability to know what pupils are doing without watching them; to 'take in' a school without espionage." This power is more than the physical sense; it is the mental habit of seeing and hearing that which is going on in one's presence. In other words, it is present-mindedness as opposed to absent-mindedness.

Voice.—An expressive voice is an asset of greater value than is perhaps realized. Too often the teacher tires herself as well as the children by pitching her voice too high. When one is speaking with apparent effort, his listeners become tired and worn. On the other hand, the teacher, through the proper use of the voice, may have almost unlimited influence in the classroom. A loud, shrill tone of voice irritates pupils, takes their minds from their work, and makes discipline more difficult.

Personal Appearance.—Providence has given each human being a body in which to place the soul. It becomes the duty of each individual to live so that through proper use of this "temple" the best may be accomplished in every phase of life. We are in duty bound to make the most of these bodies, keep them well, clean, neat, and free from obnoxious habits. Our personal appearance, which is the sum total of our dressing and grooming, should be such that the world will not halt in its onrush because of surprise or even of curiosity at

our appearance. A business man who had been a school man visited a neighboring town one day. He called on the local schools, and while waiting for the superintendent made himself at home about the building. He heard loud talking and, thinking trouble was brewing for some one, stopped before the door of a fourth grade teacher. Curiosity superseded interest, so he opened the door and entered. He found a young teacher talking in a loud voice, her hair unkempt and her general appearance very much against her chances of success. At the close of the recitation the gentleman kindly said: "May I make a suggestion?" "Yes," was the reply. The gentleman then asked if she did not use up more energy than was necessary. The reply was: "Yes; when I'm through at night many times I have to go to bed." He then said: "Do you need to comb your hair in that fashion?" Her answer was: "No." This business man again said: "I'm many years your senior, and let me suggest some things to you. You could teach in my school if you would do three things—comb your hair properly, dress yourself more fittingly, and lower your voice in the schoolroom."

This is an example of a teacher who nullified her good points in her failure to weigh the influence of personal appearance.

Checking Efficiency.—The following is a system of checking the efficiency and ability of teachers. This becomes very valuable when students are taken out to inspect a rural school. The points listed need to be studied so that teachers may see what points are considered when discussing an efficient teacher. Most superintendents of city and town school systems use blanks quite similar to this in collecting information

concerning the teachers who apply for positions in their schools.

I. PHYSICAL EFFICIENCY

1. Energy.....vigorous.....weak.....

2. Endurance.....sustained.....easily fatigued.....

3. Voice.....smooth.....harsh.....clear.....

Agreeable.....

4. Care of clothes, nails, etc.:

attended to.....conventional.....

showy.....neat.....

5. Bodily poise.....Quiet in movement.....

dignified.....Lacking in command.....

6. General tone of health:

rugged.....normal.....weak.....

II. NATIVE EFFICIENCY

1. Attitudes:

Self-control.....Irritable.....

Genial.....unduly serious.....courteous.....

Rude.....encouraging.....nagging.....firm.....

Tactful.....quick.....quiet.....industrious.....

2. Intellectual capacity:

Strong.....medium.....weak.....

3. Discipline:

Strong.....through kindness.....

through force.....

III. ADMINISTRATIVE EFFICIENCY

Initiative.....

Executive capacity:

marked.....average.....lacking.....

Prompt.....

Economical (time, property), saving.....

Co-operation.....

IV. TEACHING EFFICIENCY

1. Teaching ability:

Aim in the recitation: clear.....

Interest and attention of pupils: strong.....

medium.....indifferent.....

Motivation: emphasized.....neglected.....

Inspiration: evident.....

Responses secured: topical.....sentence.....

phrase.....word.....

Demonstration of professional training: strong.....

Assignment: definite.....related to present lesson....

hastily made.....

pupils attack it intelligently.....

Questions: thought.....fact.....definite.....

V. SOCIAL EFFICIENCY

1. With pupils.....

With community: homes visited.....No. of parents met....

Ability to mix:.....

No. of social centers held.....

Other community meetings held.....

Playground supervision:

Leadership demonstrated.....

Shows interest:.....

Do outside pleasures or duties interfere with her work?

.....

VI. SUMMARY

What is her strongest point?.....

.....

What is her weakest point?.....

Note: Use qualifying terms, in place of check-marks, in most cases.

The following so-called "Teachers' Yardstick" has been used by Professor Macy Campbell in many institute lectures in Iowa and adjoining States. With his permission it is being inserted here:

THE THIRTY-SIX POINTS OF THE TEACHERS' YARDSTICK

Has the Teacher

1. Enthusiasm?
2. A clear aim?
3. Attention and interest of class?
4. Good preparation?
5. Stimulated pupils to bring original material to class?
6. Formulated questions so as to develop a line of thought leading to a definite goal?
7. Questioned bright pupils only?
8. Seemed too talkative?
9. Made correct statements?
10. Made statements positively?
11. Become bothered or confused easily?
12. Illustrated sufficiently?
13. Emphasized essential points?
14. Applied lesson practically?
15. Guided pupils to discover errors?
16. Called into play pupils' self-activity?
17. Left mistakes in pronunciation uncorrected?
18. Praised enough?
19. Reprimanded justly?
20. Ignored faults and irregularities?
21. Practised self-control?
22. Maintained order by harsh means?
23. Seemed consistent?
24. The good-will of most of the pupils?
25. Good order in moving and in handling books?
26. Made use of the laws of habit formation?
27. Secured quiet and diligent study?
28. Read and enjoyed good things?
29. Good things on the walls?
30. Used her steam through the cylinder in the daytime and not through the whistle at night?
31. Stimulated the pupils to ask questions?
32. Stimulated ALL the pupils to offer something?
33. Stimulated pupils to division of opinion and tolerant discussion?
34. Stimulated a consciousness of growing power in the pupils?
35. Enjoyed her work and grown a little?
36. Kept the faith?

QUESTIONS

1. What is your opinion of the statement "Teachers are born, not made"?
2. Do you have in mind any one teacher who has been your ideal? If so, what were the characteristics of that teacher?
3. As you recall your former teachers and their schools, do you see now why some were successful and why some failed? Analyze the difference.
4. Have you ever known teachers to fail because of personal appearance and conduct in public? Give a full account.
5. In this chapter many characteristics of the teacher have been discussed. List them in order of their importance as you see the teaching profession.
6. What are some of the characteristics of a profession? Do you consider that teaching is a profession? Why?
7. School boards are usually expected to keep their contracts. What should be expected of the teacher in this respect?
8. Ought teachers to organize themselves into a union and demand higher wages? Give argument either way.
9. School boards sometimes hire the teacher who offers to teach the cheapest. Ought teachers to underbid each other? Why?
10. School boards and patrons often demand better morals and a higher standard of character in teachers than they possess themselves. What do you think of this?
11. Why does the public seem to be so overcome with mingled surprise and disgust when it discovers that a teacher in its schools has made some moral mistake?
12. A teacher began keeping company with young men of the town as soon as she arrived for her fall term of school. What do you think about it? Discuss this quite fully.
13. Suppose the school board asks a teacher not to dance or attend card parties. What would you do if you were that teacher?
14. Suppose your school board wants to have a two weeks' corn-husking vacation in the fall. What would you do about it?

15. The pastor in the town where you teach wants you to teach a Sunday-school class, lead the young people's class, and sing in the choir. What will you do about it?

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